

A BRIEF HISTORY OF

ANCIENT AND MODERN



INDIA,

From the earliest period of Antiquity

Embellished with colored Engravings

Pictures painted

Together with

KINGDOM

To the termination of the late Mahratta War.

from Richard Chase Esq^rs Collection of

in India:

Views in the

of MYSORE.

THE WHOLE
Edited by and Engraved under
the direction of
EDWARD ORME.

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BRIEF HISTORY
OF
(ANCIENT AND MODERN INDIA),
FROM THE
EARLIEST PERIODS OF ANTIQUITY
TO THE
TERMINATION OF THE LATE MAHRATTA WAR.

BY
FRANCIS WILLIAM BLAGDON, ESQUIRE.

Hæc studia adolescentiam alunt, senectutem oblectant, secundas res ornant, adversis solatium et perfugium præbent; delectant domi, non impediunt foris; pernoctant nobiscum, peregrinantur, rusticantur. CICERO.



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P R E F A C E.



THE Editor of the two volumes of **VIEWS IN HINDOSTAN AND THE MYSORE**, having, after an exertion of nearly four years since their commencement, at length brought them to a conclusion, he conceives that they will appear still more acceptable to his numerous friends and patrons, by being accompanied with an Historical Sketch of the country they are intended to delineate; and he trusts that the following pages, while they answer the general purpose of cursory information, will be more particularly agreeable to those who may not be intimately acquainted with the great events that have transpired, especially in modern times, in the vast empire of the East.

The historical part has been drawn up from the most authentic documents, and if it be no addition to the intrinsic value of the work, will certainly be no deterioration from its merits; as it will enable the reader, who may be unacquainted with Asiatic affairs, to form a correct idea of the immense and interesting territory which has so often been the scite of British bravery, and which will doubtless long prove a primary source of British opulence.

If the Brief Historical Account were intended for critical investigation, the author would indeed feel some concern, with respect to the censure he would anticipate to be passed upon his exertions, which, from their present limits, must doubtless be very far from perfection. Without some definite and reasonable apology, the man who should attempt to write a history of the most celebrated country in the world, in the short compass of twenty-four pages, would be liable not merely to censure but perhaps to ridicule. In the present instance however, the author confidently hopes, that brief as is the space to which he has been confined, the Sketch will be entitled to consideration, not merely as a comple ment from voluminous writers, (for he has brought it down to the present time from authentic sources of information resulting from his private connections,) but as a chronological arrangement of the events that have transpired in a great portion of the eastern quarter of the world, collected from documents various, authentic, and extensive; events which, from their nature and

consequences, particularly in modern times, can be considered with no common satisfaction by every admirer of British generosity, mildness, and valour.

But in order that the nature of this literary addition may be more completely understood, it should be observed that brevity was throughout indispensably necessary; and the rapid pressure of important events having left no place for those reflections and remarks which must always arise from historical composition, the Sketch should rather be considered as a narrative of the most striking occurrences; and in which those of our own age have been discussed more in detail than those of remote periods, of which little is known with certainty, but which are supposed chiefly to have had their origin in hypothetical report. Hence, the author, from a presentiment of their superior importance, has confined his account to the political, military, and commercial incidents of the general history; and has found no room for the introduction of the religious dogmata and civil regulations, which prevail in such complex and varied shades, throughout the territory of India. Such an omission will, he trusts, be the more excusable from the difficulty, the impossibility, of conveying in a satisfactory manner, and in a contracted space, the veriest outline of the abstruse systems of Hindoo theology, and Hindoo laws.

The Sketch is accompanied with **ORIGINAL PORTRAITS** of the Native Judges and Officers of the Recorder's Court at Bombay, with the drawings of which **LADY SYER** most obligingly accommodated the Proprietor, for the purpose of bringing his work still nearer to perfection. These form a highly interesting folio plate, which, with an engraved Frontispiece, the History, Indexes, &c. &c. are given only as one number, and will render the whole a complete work relative to India. But this number may be had or declined, at the option of the purchaser of the preceding parts.

The Views in Hindostan, and those in the Mysore, may be bound with the History, either in one volume, or separately; and any gentleman who may wish to have the prints bound in two volumes, may be accommodated with two copies of the History, &c. for that purpose.

and Officers of the Court of the Recorder, Bombay.



Interpreter



Judge of the Hindoo Law



Hindoo Officer



Published & Sold Jan 7th 1805.
by Edw^o Orme
Her Majesty's Printereller,
59 Bond Street, London.

Index of the Mahomedan Law

The Drawings taken from life
by desire of
Sir William Sykes K.B. the first Recorder
and now in the possession of Lady Sykes

Havaldar

DESCRIPTION OF THE FRONTSPIECE,

TAKEN FROM THE

PEDIMENT OF THE PORTICO TO THE EAST-INDIA-HOUSE.

COMMERCE, represented by MERCURY, attended by NAVIGATION, and followed by Tritons on sea-horses, is introducing ASIA to BRITANNIA, at whose feet she pours out her treasures—the KING is holding the SHIELD OF PROTECTION over the Head of BRITANNIA, and of LIBERTY, who is embraced by her. On the side of HIS MAJESTY sits ORDER, attended by RELIGION and JUSTICE. In the back ground is the City Barge, &c. near to which stand INDUSTRY and INTEGRITY. The THAMES fills the angle to the right hand, and the GANGES the angle towards the East.

The Sentiment of this Composition is—That a Nation can be truly prosperous, only when it has a King who makes Religion and Justice the basis of his Government, and a Constitution which, while it secures the Liberties of the Subject, maintains a due Subordination in the several ranks of Society; and where the Integrity of the People, secures to each Individual those advantages which Industry creates and cultivates.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PORTRAITS OF THE NATIVE JUDGES

AND

OFFICERS OF THE COURT OF THE RECORDER, AT BOMBAY.

Which were taken from Life in 1798, by desire of SIR WILLIAM SYER, KNIGHT, the First Recorder of that Court.

THE DRAWINGS ARE NOW IN THE POSSESSION OF LADY SYER.

1. The Judge of the Hindoo Law, *Antoba Crustnagee Pundit*.
2. Interpreter, *Rhowangee Sewagee*.
3. Hindoo Officer, *Lellather Chatta Bhutt*.
4. Judge of the Mahomedan Law, *Cagee Husson*.
5. Officer of the Moormen, *Mahmoud Ackram*, of the Codjee order of Priesthood of the cast of Moormens.
6. Havalder, or summoning Officer, *Mahmoud Esmael*.

A
B R I E F H I S T O R Y
O F
A N C I E N T A N D M O D E R N I N D I A.

FRom the earliest periods of antiquity, that extensive portion of Asia denominated Hind, Hindostan, or India, has been eminently distinguished, not only by its favourable climate and the striking peculiarity of its productions, in which the majesty and simplicity of nature are, in a high degree, conspicuous; but particularly by the various temporal changes and revolutions to which it has been subjected. Equally wonderful and admirable is the moral and religious character of its inhabitants, whether we regard their systematic division into various tribes, their rigid adherence to the different shades of worship professed by their forefathers, their placid and submissive disposition, their general inclination to temperance, or their great ingenuity in all the mechanical professions. Indeed, in whatever view the ancient and modern history of this empire is considered, it cannot fail to afford a more diversified and awful subject for contemplation, than is to be derived from that of any other country in the habitable world.

Although it is to be regretted that in the ancient history of every nation truth is manifestly blended with fiction, and that all the accounts transmitted previous to the commencement of written history are vague and unsatisfactory, yet we have authority too great to be doubted, that the mild and fertile regions of the East formed the residence of man, when placed on earth by the Creator to begin his career of mortality; and by minute comparison it has appeared, that a very considerable analogy exists between the account of the creation, deluge, &c. contained in the Puranas, or sacred writings of the Hindoos, and that which forms the substance of the book of Genesis. Independently, therefore, of its interest as an extensive record of the most celebrated empire in the world, the ancient account of India becomes particularly important, from its similitude with the sacred volumes transmitted to us by the inspired writers; while its modern history must be peculiarly interesting, as it exhibits the importance of the British possessions, acquired by a series of valourous actions not surpassed by any of which our countrymen have to boast. But as moral and political reflections on this subject, however frequent the opportunities for them may occur, can neither be given nor expected in a

historical account which, from its contracted limits, must be considered only as an outline of important facts, we shall proceed at once to our narrative; merely premising that no authority, however extensive, has been overlooked, nor have any exertions been omitted, which could render, in this sketch, a faithful abstract of the great events recorded by voluminous writers on the Indian history.

The ancient empire of India extended from the vast chain of mountains of Thebet and Tartary in the North, to the island of Ceylon on the South; and from the great river Ganges on the East, to that of Indus on the West. These rivers are at a distance of four hundred leagues from each other: the whole extent of territory contains as many square miles as are comprised in about half the continent of Europe, and the amount of its population is by some writers computed at nearly sixty-five, by others at seventy millions. It was called by the ancient inhabitants *Bharat Varsa*, and comprehended all those countries in which the primitive religion and laws of Brahma were predominant.

The two grand and principal rivers, after diffusing the most luxuriant verdure through many rich and powerful kingdoms in their passage, fall into the Ocean; the one by various mouths in the 24th degree of west latitude, comprising the country of Kartsh; the other into the Bay of Bengal, between Chittagong and Diamond Point, in the 22d degree of east latitude; while on three sides the country is bounded by vast ridges of stupendous mountains, one of which extends from north to south, completely across the territory, which thus possesses the most pleasing variety of climate, and at its opposite extremities exhibits the singular phenomenon of two seasons at the same period. If we also consider the immense natural treasures of this region, such as the abundance of its agricultural products, its valuable aromatic woods, its delicious fruits, and the richness and variety of its manufactures, the vast object of contemplation will be increased; but we shall have no cause for surprise that such a wonderful country has always afforded a field for the ambition and rapacity of military conquerors.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ANCIENT AND MODERN INDIA.

That part of the empire denominated Hindostan, is comprised between the latitude of 21 and 30 degrees north, and signifies *the country of the black people*. By the *Deccan*, which implies south, is understood the great Indian peninsula; and the word India was used by the Greeks, according to Strabo, Arrian, Ptolemy, and others, to define the immense territory that lies between Persia and China, the mountains of Tartary, and the Southern Ocean; but in Europe we now understand by Hindostan, or India, the whole of those extensive countries comprised within all the above-mentioned limits, including Ceylon and the different islands in the Eastern Archipelago. The term India is therefore very considerable in its application, though it more properly relates only to the ancient empire of Hindostan. The remote antiquity of the nations of this empire has often given rise to the most attractive theories of philosophers; but it must be admitted that their opinions have hitherto only rested on conjecture; and, as history is a branch of literature which has never been cultivated by the Hindoos, nothing can be expected like a regular narration of the events which have taken place in their country during the early ages. The general opinion, however is, that the Hindoos as they appear at present, were the aboriginal inhabitants of the territory in question; and this idea is strongly supported by Mr. Orme, the historian, who observes that "they have no relation in their figures and manners to any of the contiguous nations." A striking argument in support of this opinion may also be drawn from the permanency of their religious system, which, though resting on the fragile bases of idolatry and superstition, has, according to the most authentic accounts, remained unaltered through successive generations, for a period of 3000 years.

The earliest description of these extraordinary people was written by Megasthenes, who about 2000 years ago was sent as ambassador from Seleucus, the Grecian emperor, to Sandracottos, king of Prachi, the ancient name for the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and a part of Oude;* and it is very remarkable that his account fully corresponds with every material part of their modern history. One circumstance, however, which has undoubtedly tended to preserve the purity of their origin, is that part of their religious ordinances, which prohibits them from intermarrying with foreigners; and which would be considered as entailing perpetual infamy upon themselves and their posterity.

As the Hindoos were ever a pacific people, though celebrated for their courage and perseverance, they did not cultivate the art of war, and their necessary military establishments not being systematically conducted, their early victories are attributable rather to their valour and perseverance than to their scientific ingenuity. The losses which they sustained in combating with their more experienced enemies were supplied by hordes of slaves, whom their laws authorised them to purchase, or enfranchise among themselves, and who were taken from all classes promiscuously, except the Brahmuns.

* He resided a long time at Baliputra, and his journals having fallen into the possession of Arrian, they were incorporated by him in his history of India. This history is often quoted by the ancients; but Lempriere, in his "Bibliotheca," asserts, that what now passes as his composition is spurious.

These slaves were not only compelled to undertake military duties, but were considered as a part of the establishment of all persons of consequence, whose importance seemed to be proportionate to the number they were capable of supporting:—those however employed about the household of the great men were principally prisoners of war, who were doomed to such degrading servitude, as the consequence of their captivity; but those employed as auxiliaries in the battles, derived such aid from their ingenuity and perseverance, that they were often enabled to diffuse terror amongst the firm and disciplined warriors of Greece. For many centuries previous to the invasion of Alexander, they had become acquainted with gunpowder and fire-arms, and at the time of this invasion, the Macedonian armies on the banks of the Hyphasis were disconcerted and appalled by the artillery of wood and iron with which the Hindoos defended their walls, and by the rockets which they threw in amongst them; the effect of which was attributed by the assailants to supernatural agency.

As ancient India was celebrated from the earliest times for its wisdom and its wealth, it was natural that the envy, cupidity, and hatred of neighbouring and even distant countries should be excited against it. The transmission of its luxuries to the fairs of Babylon and Tyre, and their conveyance into Egypt and Greece by the Phoenicians, who opened the navigation between the Red Sea and the coasts of Malabar and Guzerat, first gave rise to the opinion, that by a general, or even partial conquest of the country, they might be procured on easier terms; and thus we ascertain the primeval cause of those numerous and sanguinary battles, massacres, and invasions from which this famous empire has derived a vast portion of its celebrity.

It is stated in the Puranas, that Hindostan was, for many centuries, divided into various kingdoms, which, though independent of each other, nevertheless acknowledged one sovereign, more potent than the rest, as their supreme head, and with whom they all united to repel any aggression of foreign nations. Previous to the invasion of Alexander, the empire is reported to have comprised four powerful kingdoms, viz.

1. Prachi, or the East, including Bengal, Bahar, and a part of Oude, and of which the metropolis was Baliputra, so celebrated in Grecian history by the name of Palibothra.*
2. The kingdom which comprehended the great peninsula from the river Kistnah to Cape Comorin, and which was afterwards celebrated for the splendour of its metropolis of Bijanagur, said to have been founded in the the 3d century of the Hegira.
3. The kingdom which extended from the Gulph of Cambay to the mouths of the Ganges; and from latitude 22 to 17 degrees north; comprising the provinces of Guzerat, Malwa, Candeish, Berar, and Dowlatabad, according to the map of Major Rennell.
4. The kingdom which comprised the provinces of Lahore, Multan, Delhi, and Ajimeer, and which were governed by Rajahs, or petty princes, who were tributary and responsible to their respective sovereigns.

* Vide Mr. Wilford's Treatise on Hindoo Chronology, Asiatic Researches. Vol. V.

The northern states of India having formed a confederacy, which was influenced by the same laws and superstitions, but which differed essentially in language, manners, and interests, a basis was thus laid for frequent dissensions, which attracted the attention of the Persians, and barbarian Tartars of Thebet, and caused their irruptions into those wealthy provinces. One good effect, however, resulted from this connexion ; for it enabled the princes of the West to make an astonishing resistance to the conquering phalanxes of Alexander, though their patriotic efforts were ultimately ineffectual, as the discipline and martial skill of the Greeks finally bore down all before them ; and Alexander, after having subdued several states on the banks of the Indus, passed the rivers of the Panjab, attacked the powerful army collected by the valiant prince Porus, to oppose his progress ; when, though he had to encounter a most gallant resistance, he obtained a decisive victory by the capture of the prince and his most distinguished generals. His brilliant career however was of short duration, as a mutiny, which soon afterwards broke out in his camp, obliged him to make a precipitate retreat from Hindostan, leaving the conquered territory in possession of a few of his officers, with a small part of his army :—but the wealth, honours, and luxurious habits which they had acquired, too soon abolished those feelings which support the dignity of the soldier ; and a succession of vice and debauchery, to which the oppressed Hindoos did not fail to administer, caused the rapid destruction of the Macedonian victors. This event was indeed facilitated by the death of Alexander, which happened about the time alluded to, or 330 years before Christ, and by the subsequent division of his empire ; while the remains of his power in Hindostan were finally reduced by the valourous conduct of Chandra-gupta, king of Prachi. This prince was the son of Nanda, whose character for wisdom and bravery is always described in terms of admiration by the Hindoos, and who was murdered by a faithless domestic, in revenge for some imaginary injury. He left several sons, who disputed the succession with the utmost rancour, but the majority of the nobles being in favour of Chandra-gupta, he took possession of the throne, after a sanguinary conflict with his contentious brothers.

Several of the western Powers afforded this prince material assistance in support of his claims, by the contribution of their own, as well as of Greek soldiers, whom they had bribed into their service ; and soon after, the Grecian prince Seleucus having advanced towards the Indus with intent to recover the possessions obtained by Alexander, the king of Prachi previously entered those territories, and after restoring them to the powers from whom they had been wrested, he offered battle to Seleucus, which the latter thought proper to decline, notwithstanding the brows of his troops were crowned with the laurels of recent victories. On the contrary, he even made proposals of peace, which were accepted by Chandra-gupta, and by which the Greeks abandoned all pretensions to the conquests of Alexander on the east bank of the Indus : the king of Prachi, who was only actuated by motives of patriotism and justice, then returned to his capital amidst the admiration of his subjects. But Seleucus had wisely

secured to the Greeks the most extensive commercial advantages, and by his apparent candour, had obtained the good opinion of Chandra-gupta, so that the latter consented to receive the celebrated Megasthenes at the court of Baliputra, where he resided several years, and succeeded in restoring the trade which had formerly existed between the two countries.

At length, after raising his empire to a degree of unparalleled prosperity, Chandra-gupta closed a glorious reign ; and his successors are said to have pursued the same system of patriotic benevolence ; but his family became extinct about 200 years before Christ ; and from that period till the invasion of the Mahomedans, the history of Hindostan is buried in obscurity ; though the poets have recorded innumerable anecdotes of commotions and civil wars, which may, in part at least, be supposed to have foundation in truth. We are informed by them that the Bactrians having revolted from the Seleucidæ, or descendants of Seleucus, in the decline of the Assyrian power, the inhabitants of the small states which had been subdued by Alexander frequently united to repel the aggressions of the first-mentioned people, and the brave resistance which they made rendered them worthy of a fate far different from that to which they ultimately submitted.

It was in the seventh century of the Christian æra, doubtless the most important in the Indian history, that the Arabs, in consequence of their predilection for traffic, and their ardour for conversion to the Mahomedan faith, became anxious for the most daring enterprises ; and under the pretence of commercial dealings, they crossed the Indian Ocean to Guzerat, Malabar, and all the southern parts of India, where they insidiously disseminated their new religion, while in the Northern Provinces they were endeavouring to enforce it by the sword. Hence it appears, that by the 10th century of the Christian æra, or the 4th of the Hegira, they had converted the inhabitants of Korasan and Kabul, and established in those provinces the kingdom of Ghizni. They had also crossed the Indus, pillaged all the Hindoo temples in Lahore, and returned to Ghizni with the spoils, when Mahmoud I. upon his accession to the throne of Ghizni, made the impious vow to convert, by force of arms, the whole Hindoo race to the Mahomedan faith. He immediately began with the most horrid cruelties, spared neither age nor sex, and in the course of 20 years he had twelve times invaded Hindostan, and conquered the whole of the western provinces, from Guzerat to Delhi. The princes of Guzerat, indeed, made a brave resistance, but being finally subdued, the whole of the population who could not effect their escape were put to the sword with the most sanguinary triumph.

The plunder of the conquered provinces having made Mahmoud the most wealthy monarch of his race, he at length quitted Hindostan, and after residing some time in his native country, turned his arms against the Persians and Tartars, in whose immense regions his victories were equally rapid, cruel, and astonishing.

After the death of Mahmoud, which happened A. D. 1030, the same system of

persecution was continued by his successors, and several attempts were made by the native princes to avenge their injuries, but particularly by the prince of Delhi, who having raised a powerful army, defeated the Mussulmans in several general engagements; but elated with his success, he continued the pursuit with too great impetuosity, and in the year 1046, after a dreadful conflict, his whole army was completely defeated.

From this period, nothing important is known till 1191, when Mahomed Ghori, an Afghan prince, conquered Ghizni, and penetrating into the eastern provinces, fought many severe battles with the Hindoo princes, whom he finally overcame, ravaged the provinces of Oude and Allahabad, stormed the city of Benares, and after devoting that ancient seat of literature and science to general pillage, he consecrated the temple of Brahma to the prophet of Mecca, and invoked his spirit to sanction the abominable outrage. But an insurrection having broken out at Korasan, he was obliged to leave Benares to subdue the insurgents; here, however, his fortune changed; for the prince of Samarcand having arrived with a powerful reinforcement for the Korasanians, Mahomed, after a most desperate defence, was driven into a small fort, and surrounded by the enemy, from whom he ransomed himself for a large sum of money, and returned to Ghizni, where he was assassinated, after a powerful reign of 30 years.

On the death of this chief, the empire of Ghizni was usurped by Eldoze and Cuttubedin, who had been the confidential officers of Mahmoud; the former took possession of Turkestan and Persia, while the latter, who was originally a slave in the country of the Afghans, declared himself king of Hindostan, and founded the Afghan Dynasty. He then formed a plan for, and partially succeeded in conquering Bahar and Bengal; but his premature death left his projects of usurpation to be completed by Altemesh, who ascended the throne of Delhi in A. D. 1210, and whose dominions in 1225 extended from the mountains of Thebet to the Deccan, in latitude 20 degrees north, and from the Ganges to the Indus. He was an enlightened prince, but the oppressions of those whom he had appointed as governors always kept the inhabitants of the western provinces in a state of revolt, and often led to sanguinary conflicts.

In 1231, the celebrated Zinghis Khan conquered all Asia to the nothward of latitude 30 degrees, as well as all the countries on the west bank of the Indus, which he distributed amongst his Mogul chieftains. These afterwards made many incursions into the Panjab, and to the borders of Delhi, where they were at length defeated by the virtuous Balin, who succeeded Altemesh; and by whose noble and magnanimous conduct the empire was restored to a degree of quiet and prosperity which it had not enjoyed for centuries. This monarch died in 1286, and was succeeded by Kei-Kobad and Feroze the Second, in whose reigns nothing particular occurred; but the usurper Alla having ascended the throne of Hindostan in 1306, by the murder of his uncle Feroze, the Mussulman power was extended over the northern provinces of the Deccan. Alla appears to have been one of the most detestable tyrants in the history of that country.

He resorted to every kind of profligacy and oppression, in order to gain the ends of his ambition. He seized the property of all men of wealth, forbade the nobles to marry without obtaining his license, and declared that religion had no connexion with civil government; while in those provinces where the largeness could not be furnished, he pillaged all the sacred temples with unrelenting rapacity.

During these proceedings in the Deccan, the Moguls besieged Delhi with a powerful army, but Alla suddenly returning to the defence of his capital, totally defeated the assailants, after one of the most sanguinary battles recorded in Indian history. This event did not fail to increase the pride, and stimulate the ambition of the chieftain, whose future schemes of conquest were extraordinary and eccentric. He was not contented with gaining the title of a great commander, but was anxious to be considered as a prophet; and by laying the foundation of a new religion, to excel in power and in fame both Alexander and Mahomed. But though Alla possessed a comprehensive mind, he was greatly deficient in many qualities which would have been necessary to the success of a project of far less magnitude than that which his vanity had suggested; and he soon saw an insurmountable obstacle to the execution of his schemes, in the disaffection of his nobility; while he became convinced of the danger of innovation upon the doctrines of the Hindoos, whose adherents had ever supported them with the mildest, though most decisive firmness. At length he was forced to abandon his unlimited projects, and to amuse himself with the prospect of conquering the southern countries of Hindostan. But even here his ambition was for a long time frustrated; for the irruptions of the Moguls into his northern provinces, kept him in continual warfare, in order to secure the possessions he had already acquired; while his own presence was necessary at the head of the forces which were to repel the invaders. He however dispatched Cafoor, one of his most experienced generals, against the Hindoo kingdoms to the north of the Kistnah; all of which, except the mountainous tracts of Orissa and Berar, were conquered by this commander, who returned to Delhi with plunder from the Deccan which amounted to one hundred millions sterling.

Alla being now satiated with hostility, endeavoured to pass his life in peace, and nothing worthy of notice occurred during the remainder of his reign. He made many judicious and systematic arrangements in the administration of public affairs throughout his immense dominions, which he had increased by upwards of half of the peninsula of India; and notwithstanding his sanguinary and despotic conduct at the commencement of his power, he died respected by his subjects; who reflecting only on the advantages which they then enjoyed, forgot the outrages by which he had become their master.

After the death of Alla, however, his system of government was abandoned by his puerile successors, and anarchy soon prevailed throughout the empire; when by the exertions of the Hindoo princes, who always cautiously watched for an opportunity of avenging themselves upon their oppressors, a powerful confederacy was formed in

the Deccan, and the whole of the Peninsula, except the fortress of Dowlatabad and part of Candeish, was taken from the Mussulmans by Balaldeo, king of the Carnatic. They were also assailed from the north by the descendants of Zinghis Khan, who saw in their wealth an incessant stimulus to conquest. Thus, in the minority of Mahmoud III. the Mussulman empire in India was not only attacked by the Hindoos in the south, and the Moguls in the north, but was disturbed for three years by the most furious intestine divisions, during the whole of which period the city of Delhi was scarcely ever free from sanguinary conflicts between the adherents of the rival potentates, till, at length, both parties being nearly exhausted, they agreed upon a truce, in order amicably to settle their differences.

It was during this suspension of hostilities that the invasion of the famous Timur Beg, or Tamerlane, formed one of the most important æras in the history of India. This Prince, who was the Chief of the Moguls, the King of Candahar, and the lineal descendant of Zinghis Khan, having subdued all the northern nations of Asia, and extended his conquests as far as the eastern provinces of Russia, formed the project of subjugating Hindostan; and accordingly proceeded with an immense army from Samarcand to the Jallali, a western branch of the Indus, and thence down the river to the confluence of the Jimboo and the Chinab, where he passed over his army on a bridge of boats; and meeting with resistance from the populous town of Tulumubini, he plundered the inhabitants of their property, and put them all to the sword. This event happened about the close of the year 1398.

The terrific proceedings of this new conqueror, who had spread desolation through the whole province of Multan, caused a union between the factions at Delhi, whence, on his approach, the sultan Mahmoud and his minister Eckbal sallied out against him; but after a conflict of several hours, they were repulsed with considerable loss. It is asserted that some of the prisoners taken by Timur's army having expressed their exultation at the bravery of their countrymen, he barbarously ordered the whole of the victims in his possession to be massacred; and according to Ferishta, "upwards of 100,000 of these people were in less than an hour put to the sword!" On the following day a general assault was made by Timur, which was encountered by a sortie on the part of Eckbal; but being again defeated with great slaughter, he advised Mahmoud to retreat to Guzerat, whither he was pursued by a detachment from Timur, and only effected his escape after the loss of two of his sons, and a considerable part of his retinue.

In the mean time the conqueror entered Delhi, and levied contributions in proportion to the wealth of the inhabitants; but on some resistance taking place, he gave orders for a general massacre, which was carried into effect, and the city literally deluged with the blood of its inhabitants. He also, at a grand festival to commemorate his victories, caused another general sacrifice of all the prisoners in his possession, not excepting women and children.—In short, nothing could satiate his enmity towards the Hindoos; and marching to the rocks of Coupele, which form a sacred cave at

the foot of Mount Kimmaleh, he is said to have put to death several thousand pilgrims in the act of their devotion.

At length the incursions of Sultan Bajazet in the north of Asia caused Timur to repair to Samarcand, and having left no force to keep possession of his conquests in Hindostan, they became again the prey of civil commotions, which ended in the restoration of Mahmoud to his throne, which he retained till his death in A. D. 1413; but his power was merely nominal, the provinces having been deprived of all their wealth and grandeur by the victorious and inexorable marauders by whom they had been ravaged.

The throne of Delhi was next occupied by a family of Seids, or, as they called themselves, descendants of the holy Prophet; but their feeble dynasty terminated in 1450, by the abdication of Alla, their last prince, and the elevation of Belloli, of Affghan, who reigned 38 years; when, in 1488, the empire was again dismembered: but the influence of Belloli only extended through the province of Delhi, a Mussulman having usurped the title of King of Bengal and Bahar, while in the Deccan, to the north of the Kistnah, there were five independent Mussulman states.

The power of the monarchs of Delhi was however for some time transitory; Secunder, the son of Belloli, having reigned with some *éclat* till 1509, and transferred the seat of government to Agra: but under Ibrahim, son of the latter, the people became rebellious, and uniting with Sultan Baber, a Mogul prince, he was totally defeated, and expired in the field of battle. The Sultan, who had literally descended from Timur, then took possession of Delhi and Agra, caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor, and thus, in 1525, began a new Mogul dynasty, after making, with this object in view, four different irruptions into Hindostan. He was an amiable prince, and was alike celebrated for his heroism and his generosity; but he existed only five years after the conquest of Delhi:—he tolerated religion, and was celebrated for his skill in poetry and music.

Humaioon, his son, was a prince whose career was equally victorious. He subjugated the western provinces of Guzerat and Malwa, and those of Bengal and Bahar on the east; but being attacked by the united force of his younger brothers, he was obliged to abandon Hindostan, and retire to Persia. The brothers afterwards quarrelled, and were subdued by Shere, an Affghan prince, who was proclaimed Emperor in 1542; but after nine years of exile, Humaioon returned to Hindostan at the head of a considerable Persian Army, and defeating the Affghans at Sirhind, regained his title and power. His son Akbar, though only 13 years of age at the time of this victory, displayed the greatest military genius; and succeeding his father in 1556, the country enjoyed under him a succession of uninterrupted prosperity.* At his death, in 1605, the

* A full account of the life and character of this monarch is to be found in the "Ayeen Akberi," or the Institutes of the Emperor Akbar, translated by Francis Gladwin, Esq.—This learned Potentate is particularly alluded to in those excellent works the "Asiatic Researches" and the "Asiatic Annual Register."

Mussulman princes again attacked the remaining dependencies of the Hindoo monarchy of Bejanaghur, which comprised the whole of the peninsula from the river Kistnah to Cape Comorin, and had never been subdued till 1565, when Ram Ramjee, the Hindoo king, was defeated and killed by the Mahomedans at the battle of Tellecottah ; but the southern provinces of this kingdom, Mysore, Bidenore, Ginjee, Trichinopoly, Tanjore and Madura, had remained independent, under naicks, or governors, after the dissolution of the kingdom of Bejanaghur : and in consequence of the conquest above-mentioned, the Malabar states of Cochin, Travancore, Calicut, &c. also shook off their dependency.

When the Mussulman princes of the Deccan approached, after the death of Akbar, towards these states, they met with little or no opposition ; as the people of this part of the country had become accustomed to the manners of the Mahomedans, by the intercourse of the Turkish merchants amongst them, and had no apprehension of conquest, but rather wished for their arrival, to assist in the expulsion of the Portugueze, who had at this time become a fierce and troublesome body of invaders.—It was at this period also, that the British flag was first displayed triumphant on the coasts of India.

For many centuries the general commerce with India, notwithstanding the commotions with which that country was always afflicted, had attained the most extensive success. It was first raised to a degree of unexampled eminence under the auspicious influence of the Romans, who proceeded by sea from the straits of Babelmandel to Guzerat and Malabar : this route was discovered by Hippalus, a naval captain in the time of Augustus ; and from that period till the decline of the Roman empire, a fleet of 120 ships annually sailed from Myos-hormos, in the Red Sea, to Musiris and Borace, now called Meerjee and Barcelore, on the coast of Malabar. The profits of this extensive commerce appear to have been greatly in favour of India, as the Romans gave specie in exchange for all their articles of luxury ; and this circumstance, added to the propensity of the Hindoos for hoarding their money, together with their own natural resources, may account for the great wealth with which that country in early times abounded. On the decline of the Roman Empire, at the period when the government was removed to Constantinople, their commerce with India was likewise depreciated ; but this decrease is supposed to have originated not from the declension of the European power, but from the excessive opulence and consequent idleness of the merchants of Alexandria, through whose medium it was carried on by way of the Red Sea. The spirit of commercial enterprise, however, as it declined amongst the Egyptians, was seized by the Arabs, who, stimulated by the ardour of propagating the Mahomedan religion, as well as by a thirst for plunder, under the name of traffic, equipped annually several squadrons of ships for Malabar, and obtained leave to settle as merchants at the sea-ports.

When we consider the mild and acquiescent manners of the Hindoos, to which those of the Arabs were not dissimilar, it will not appear surprising that the latter soon obtained a permanent footing amongst the natives : hence we learn that in A. D. 642, or

the 21st of the Hegira, they built a mosque at Corrigalore, as well as several others on different parts of the coast, where, notwithstanding the opposition they experienced from the Jewish and other Christian merchants, they succeeded in making thousands of converts to their faith, most of whom, however, were either Brahmnical outcasts, or those who escaped from the persecutions of their governors and petty tyrants in the north of India. To the above-mentioned cause (the passive disposition of the Hindoos) is also to be attributed the diffusion of every other worship known in civilized nations, and nearly all of which have existed in India since the commencement of the ninth century of the Christian æra. We know from undisputed authority, that Christianity was introduced into India by the Apostles, particularly by St. Thomas and St. Panthene ; and it is asserted that the latter, on his arrival, found amongst the natives, a copy of the Gospel of St. Matthew in Hebrew :—the first appearance of this religion, therefore, in India must have taken place in the first and second ages of the church. It cannot however be expected that we should be able to enter much into the ecclesiastical history of India ; and having merely noticed the origin of the different systems in that country, we shall proceed to the continuation of the political and commercial incidents which it is our object to record.

When the spirit of traffic declined amongst the Egyptians, it was not only assumed by the Arabs, but likewise by the Persians, who sent ships to Malabar and Ceylon, which returned with the commodities of India and China to the Euphrates and the Tigris, whence they were conveyed to Assyria, and finally to Constantinople : and this commercial preponderance of the Persians continued to increase till the end of the sixth century, by which time they had monopolized nearly the whole trade of Asia :—It however declined with them after the conquest of Syria and Egypt by the Caliph Amrou, who in the year 639 prohibited the merchants of Alexandria from their usual intercourse with the Byzantine empire. But during two centuries from this period, it was revived by some adventurous merchants of Constantinople, who procuring the productions of Amol and Urkanje, two towns on the west bank of the Oxus, carried them thence down that river to the Caspian Sea.

Thus the commerce of India was divided between the empires of Persia and Byzantium, till the tenth century, when the spirit of enterprise again seized the then degenerate inhabitants of Greece and Italy ; and the Eastern trade having thus been revived by these merchants, its produce was soon diffused through most of the countries of Europe. A more considerable extent was, however, given to this traffic by the crusades, which greatly facilitated the intercourse between Europe and India ; and it was still further promoted by the partition of the Grecian Empire, in the year 1104, when the Venetians having obtained a part of the Morea, and some islands in the Archipelago, they became the rivals of the Italians in Eastern commerce. They were however soon discomfited by the Genoese, who formed a confederacy with some schismatic Greeks, and deprived the Venetians of the inland trade to China : but the

latter having succeeded in obtaining a bull from the Pope, to carry on a free trade with infidels, they again recovered their influence ; and, by residing in the commercial towns of Egypt, they continued a flourishing traffic with India by way of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf ; while the Genoese carried on the northern trade between India and Constantinople.

In this state did the Indian commerce continue till the expulsion of the Genoese from the Byzantine empire, at its conquest in 1453 by Mahomed II. who established the Turkish power in Europe. By this revolution, it fell entirely into the possession of the Venetians in Egypt, with whom it continued till the important discovery was made by the Portuguese, of the passage to India round the southern extremity of Africa. The enterprises of these people were commenced under the government of Don Henry, Count de Viseo, in the year 1420 ; and encouraged by the discovery of Madeira, Porto Santo, and other islands, they were continued by Diaz and Vasquez de Gama, the latter of whom passed the Cape of Good Hope on the 20th of November, 1497, and arrived safely at Mozambique, where he was assailed both by disease and fanaticism ; his men being attacked by the scurvy, while the Mahomedans were seeking every means to destroy them, as soon as they knew that they were Christians. The prudence and care, however, of de Gama, overcame all these difficulties, and he proceeded from Mozambique to Melinda, where the prince gave him a gracious reception : from hence he pursued his course east, across the great Indian Ocean, and on the 22d of May, 1498, he reached Calicut on the coast of Malabar. Here he was received hospitably by the Zamorin, who granted the Portuguese permission to trade, provided they did not molest the Mahomedans, and other nations who enjoyed the same advantages ; after which he returned to Portugal, and obtained the highest honours and rewards for his services.

The unexpected success of this enterprise excited a degree of emulation amongst the different nations of Europe, while on the other hand the Portuguese, elated with their prosperity, conceived that nothing could be more easy than to monopolize the whole trade of India with Europe, and with this view an extensive force was sent out, under Don Pedro de Capral, to form an establishment at Malabar. In this expedition the fleet consisted of about thirty sail, including several ships of the line ; and amongst other appendages of the equipment, a number of priests were sent out, for the purpose of converting the Hindoos and Mahomedans to the Catholic religion. Capral sailed from Lisbon in March 1500, and on his passage he discovered, by steering westward, the important country of Brazil, or the east part of South America, of which he took possession by establishing the flag of Portugal, and denominating it the " Land of the Holy Cross." He then pursued his voyage, and arrived at Calicut, after losing five of his ships, when he was received in the most friendly manner by the Zamorin, who allowed him to open factories, and plant the flag of Portugal in his dominions. But the haughty disposition of this commander, and the misconduct of his

people, involved him in continual broils with the natives, and at length caused the Zamorin to take part against him ; on which he joined the Rajah of Cochin, who was at war with the lastmentioned potentate. Here, however, the same supercilious conduct soon causing him to be despised, and his offers being rejected by the princes of Malabar, he was obliged to return to Lisbon, without any other advantage than that of having contrived to load his ships with a valuable cargo.

The Portuguese, however, were not to be deterred by a partial failure, from attempting to realize their splendid speculations ; and Emanuel, as if anticipating the events which would result from the haughty behaviour of Capral, had, even in the interim, dispatched a small squadron under the orders of Don Juan Nova Colleca, who, learning of the differences which had arisen between the Zamorin and Capral, first sailed for Cannanore, and thence to Cochin. On his way to the lastmentioned place, he fell in with a fleet of vessels belonging to the Zamorin, which he almost totally destroyed. The Rajah of Cochin received him in the most friendly manner, and returning shortly to Europe with a valuable cargo, he discovered and took possession of the important island of St. Helena. In the mean time the Portuguese government fitted out another large fleet, which sailed from Lisbon for Cannanore in the beginning of 1503, under the command of Vasquez de Gama, who was then at a very advanced age. It arrived in safety, and acquired a most valuable cargo ; but on its return it was attacked by a number of vessels sent out by the Zamorin to intercept it, when a desperate battle ensued, though the skill and bravery of the Portuguese soon procured them a complete victory.

After the departure of Gama, the Zamorin, resolving to avenge himself on the Rajah for his assistance to the Portuguese, assembled an army of fifty thousand men, and marched against Cochin. It was bravely defended by Vrimampara, the rajah, with a few chosen troops ; but the superiority of the enemy's numbers having spread a general terror amongst the inhabitants of Cochin, they joined the Zamorin, and the place being taken without resistance, all who were found within its walls were put to the sword. The Rajah had previously withdrawn his small force to the island of Vaypi, a short distance from the town, whither he had also sent all the Portuguese merchants, and as this island had ever been rendered sacred to the Brahmuns, it had hitherto been regarded with awe and reverence by all the Hindoo princes. The Zamorin, however, attacked it ; but by the enthusiasm of the troops within it, he was repulsed with great loss ; and assistance having been sent to the Rajah by the next annual fleet from Portugal, the recapture of Cochin was speedily effected.

The Portuguese, however, as their influence increased, insidiously and continually fomented disputes amongst the different princes, and by always taking the strongest side, they obtained considerable grants of land, as the reward for their services. At length Emanuel, King of Portugal, who had hitherto acted with becoming spirit and prudence, formed the absurd design of expelling the the Mahomedans from India ;

but the hostilities committed in the interim by the Mappilas, or Mahomedans of Malabar, against the Portuguese, required all his attention to preserve the possessions he had already gained. The forces, however, intended for religious warfare were not useless: several squadrons were sent in 1506 on voyages of research, and the result was the discovery of Madagascar and the Maldives, and the possession of Ceylon; when by the expulsion of the Arabian merchants, the trade between this island and the Red Sea was annihilated to them, and reverted exclusively to the Portuguese, who now found themselves possessed of a greater extent of commercial power, than they had ever before attained. In consequence of this success the King of Portugal declared himself sovereign of the Indian Seas, sent out a governor with the pompous title of Viceroy of the Indies, and issued a decree, declaring, that if the ships of any nation dared to traverse those seas, without permission from the Portuguese admiral, they would be confiscated. This insolent order exasperating the Venetians and the Soldan of the Mamelukes, by the latter of which people the trade had long been carried on by way of the Red Sea, they jointly fitted out a formidable fleet, which was united with one prepared by the Arabs for the same expedition: it fell in with the Portuguese fleet off the island of Diu, under the command of the Governor-general d'Almeyda, by whom it was totally defeated; and the result was the speedy conquest by the Portuguese, of every place on the coast between Diu and Cochin. This governor was succeeded by Albuquerque, who, with a view to get possession of the port of Calicut, declared war against the Zamorin, in which he was ultimately worsted. He then sailed with a strong force, and captured by storm the town of Goa. Elated by his success, he next proceeded against Malacca, which he likewise took by storm, together with property which sold to the merchants of the place for 400,000l. sterling; but on his return to Malabar, he lost the greater part of his fleet in a tempest, together with nearly all the spoils he had acquired.

His next achievement, after having received reinforcements, was the complete conquest of the island of Ormuz, in the Persian Gulf, without the loss of a man. A partial insurrection having broken out in that place, he availed himself of the confusion, and arrived there in six weeks after his departure from Goa, when by intimidating Turrah Shah, the monarch, he induced him to acknowledge himself a vassal of the King of Portugal.

Thus the commercial and political fame of the Portuguese was extended through all the nations of Asia; and they derived no small advantage from the knowledge of those whom they subdued, that in their victorious career they had committed as few cruelties or excesses as any conquerors recorded in history.

The death of Albuquerque, which happened at Goa, soon after the subjugation of Ormuz, together with that of Emanuel, in 1521, arrested for a time the successes of the Portuguese in the East. But they obtained a complete monopoly of the spice trade; and extending their discoveries to the eastward, soon began an intercourse with China

and Japan, till at last they possessed a chain of settlements which extended from Ceylon to the mouths of the Indus.

After the death of John III. in 1557, his successor, Sebastian, animated with a Jesuitical zeal, renewed the project of converting the whole of the inhabitants of India to the Catholic religion, and began by enlarging his ecclesiastical establishments in that country; deliberate and systematic cruelties were of course resorted to for the purpose of making proselytes; and the persecution was continued with unremitting fury during the short existence of this monarch, as well as of Don Henry, who succeeded him. But when Portugal was subjected in 1580, to Philip II. of Spain, the conduct of the Portuguese in India towards the natives was so intolerable, that they were involved with them for sixty years in perpetual contests. At length the Mahrattas, who were ever the most warlike people in India, disgusted at the enormities committed by these propagators of Christianity, marched against, and defeated them in every direction; and their ruin was finally completed by the Dutch, who finding both Portugal and Spain, from which latter monarchy they themselves had revolted, unable to send assistance to their valuable colonies, attacked them on every occasion, and in a few years conquered their spice islands, Ceylon, and many other tracts of inferior importance. The proximate causes, however, of the loss of those vast possessions, were the rage for propagating a new faith, and the inordinate avarice of individuals, who acquired enormous fortunes by every species of plunder, and rapacity.

Before we quitted the political, to give an insight of the commercial, proceedings in Hindostan, we had carried the former subject down to the commencement of the 17th century, or to the close of the reign of the justly celebrated Akbar, whose possessions at his death, extended from the mountains of Thebet on the north, to Visiapour and Golconda on the south; and from Arakan and Bootan on the east, to the river Attock and Cabulistan on the west:—a territory comprising a hundred and five provinces, and two thousand seven hundred and thirty-seven districts, forming on the whole, the richest, and most valuable part of India. He was, like all his predecessors, the absolute proprietor of the soil, the gross produce of which constituted the revenues of the government, while a sixth part of the whole had been claimed for ages by the prince. During the reign of Akbar, the encouragement he afforded to agriculture and the arts, caused the revenues to be more abundant than at any former period; for on an average of the 26 years of his sovereignty they amounted annually to 36,000,000l. sterling.—This income was derivable from what is called the Mogul empire, and was drawn principally from the gross produce of the land; while out of it was paid, in the provinces, the expenses of all the civil and military establishments, the latter of which is said, in the Ayeen Akbary, to have consisted in regular and irregular troops, of 4,000,000 men.—There was, however, no great difficulty in collecting it, nor much fluctuation in the average amount; for notwithstanding the continual wars in which the country was involved, the immense sums annually brought by the different

nations for the purchase of Indian merchandize, and none of which, as we have before observed, was ever suffered to return, always contributed to keep in circulation an immense quantity of specie.—By this sketch, therefore, of the finances of the empire at the decline of the Portugueze power, though it have no particular connexion with the present history, an idea may be formed of the general importance of the country at the time of the establishment of the British East India Company.

It is asserted by William of Malmsbury, and Rymer in his *Fœdera*, that Alfred the Great assisted several merchants with ships and money, to trade to Egypt, where they procured the commodities of India; but from his death to the time of Henry VIII. this country appears to have been supplied with them almost exclusively by the merchants of Venice.—After the discovery of the passage by the Cape, the merchants of London imported their Indian goods from Lisbon; and though a Mr. Thorn presented a memorial to Henry on the subject of opening a direct commerce with India, it is singular that that ambitious monarch never gave it the smallest encouragement. In the reign of Elizabeth, however, a commercial treaty was entered into between this country and Turkey, in consequence of which the English merchants obtained great privileges in the Turkish ports, and brought to England in their own ships, the Indian goods which had been conveyed to Europe by way of Egypt. This method, however, did not produce the desired effect; for the English merchants were undersold by the Dutch: in consequence of which those of London confederated for the purpose of trading direct to India; and on application to the Queen, they obtained a charter for the East India Company. They then learned that her majesty had formed the same comprehensive project in her own mind; and that in order to forward her views, she had six months before sent Mr. Mildenhall, the consul at Constantinople, over land to India, with letters to the Emperor Akbar, for the purpose of procuring privileges for the English merchants. Rymer asserts that he returned to England without success, though it is certain that he was extremely well received by Akbar.

The Queen however, fully aware of the vast importance of the speculation, did not wait to ascertain the result of this mission, but about six months after the departure of Mildenhall from Constantinople, she granted a charter for instituting the East India Company. It was made to George, Earl of Cumberland, and 215 knights, aldermen, and merchants, which formed a body politic and corporate, under the title of the Governor and Company of Merchants of London, trading to the East Indies. The principle features of this charter are, that a governor and twenty-four directors shall be chosen annually by the Company; that the directors shall form committees, who shall have the regulation of the voyages, the sale of the merchandize, and the general management of all the Company's affairs. That the freedom of trading to all the ports of India, shall be granted for fifteen years to them and their heirs; to their sons, when of age, and to such apprentices, servants, and factors as might be employed by them. That they might make bye laws; inflict legal punishment; export goods free of duty

for four years, and to export to the amount of 30,000*l.* in foreign bullion, provided that 6000*l.* of it were re-coined in this country. The exclusive right of trading to India was allowed to them, and was prohibited under severe penalties, to all other British subjects; but to guard against an injurious monopoly of the trade, government reserved to itself the privilege of stopping it, at any period within the fifteen years allowed by the Charter, on giving two years notice. On obtaining these privileges the Company, to execute their projects, proceeded to raise a sum of money, which soon amounted to *£* 72,000. with which they equipped their first trading fleet, consisting of one ship of 600 tons, one of 300, one of 200, and a provision ship of 180 tons. This fleet sailed with a cargo of bullion, muskets, cutlasses, &c. to the value of *£* 27,000. under the command of Captain Lancaster, who had previously made an unsuccessful voyage in a ship of his own. On the 13th of February, 1601, it left the Downs for Acheen, in Sumatra; to the King of which island Elizabeth had sent letters, with an offer to conclude a treaty of commerce. After a long and disagreeable voyage of fifteen months and a half, they arrived at Acheen, and were on the next day received by the King with great ceremony. He appeared highly pleased with the presents sent by the Queen, the principal of which was a fan of feathers. He then gave a sumptuous banquet to the officers, and the treaty was concluded on the most favourable terms. This object being accomplished, Captain Lancaster took in a cargo of pepper, and sailed for Bantam, in Java: on his way he captured a Portugueze ship richly laden with spices. At Bantam he met with a reception as flattering as at Acheen; and after obtaining the same privileges as he had gained at the latter place, he sailed for England, where he arrived in September, 1603.

The success of this expedition, together with the patronage afforded to the Company by James I. who had just ascended the throne, diffused an unexampled degree of vigour amongst the merchants, and in the spring of 1604, they dispatched a second fleet of three ships, under Sir H. Middleton, who bore letters to the different princes of India: before his return a third fleet was sent out under Sir E. Michelbourn, both of which arrived in safety, and the former returned to Portsmouth in June, 1606. In the mean time, however, the Dutch, at all the ports to which our ships were destined, endeavoured to prejudice the natives against the English, by every insidious artifice; and as the prosperity and influence of the latter increased, the enmity of the former became extensive and undisguised; so that frequent hostilities took place in the islands. But James, being anxious to avoid a war with any foreign state, refused to remonstrate with the Dutch government on the improper conduct of their agents, though he granted a more enlarged charter to the Company; and a new expedition was equipped, in which was a ship of 1200 tons, for the purpose of proceeding to the ports on the continent of India, as well as to the eastern Archipelago. At Mocha, Sir H. Middleton, the commander of this squadron, having had an affray with the natives, was thrown in chains into a dungeon, and threatened with torture unless he gave up his ships, which,

however, he resolutely refused to do, and some months afterwards he made his escape. On regaining his ships, which had been kept in the harbour, he threatened to lay the town in ashes unless the remainder of the prisoners were set at liberty, and a handsome remuneration given to him for his sufferings; which so intimidated the Arabs that they immediately acceded to his demands. He then proceeded to India, and found at the mouth of the river of Surat, a Portugueze fleet of six men of war and twelve gallies, stationed there for the purpose of preventing any other nation from trading to that port. Being however joined by six merchant vessels from the port of Sually, he boldly dashed into the midst of the enemy's fleet, and by his well directed fire threw them into such consternation that several of their largest ships were taken by boarding, while the rest made a precipitate retreat. The Jesuit influence however prevented him from gaining any advantage at Surat: he therefore returned to the Red Sea, and captured on his passage several Portuguese vessels, together with a fleet of eighteen sail from India bound to Mocha. Shortly after this affair he proceeded to Bantam, where he died.

As it would be impossible to trace in our circumscribed limits the gradual rise and progress of the Company, we shall proceed to record some signal advantages which were acquired by our forces at various periods, premising, that the affairs of our merchants continued so prosperous, that in 1612, their joint stock amounted to £. 150,000. and they regularly dispatched a merchant-fleet to India every spring. The good faith observed by the English contributed much to promote their interests, and procured them the favour of many of the native princes, who had become disgusted with the duplicity of the Dutch and Portugueze.

In 1613, Captain Best, with four ships of 30 guns each, was attacked off Surat by a large armament fitted out by the Portuguese Viceroy at Goa, and consisting of four large galleons and twenty-six frigates, with 5000 men and 130 pieces of heavy ordnance. The action continued for eight hours with the most resistless fury; after which the Portuguese fleet was obliged to retreat to Goa with the greatest precipitation. This was followed by another complete victory over the same fleet, which had been refitted at Goa; and thus the English obtained an undisputed maritime sovereignty in those seas, which they have ever since maintained,

Before he returned to Europe, Best fully attained the great objects he had in view, by gaining the favour of the Mogul Emperor, who allowed the English to establish a factory at Surat, and to enjoy every commercial advantage throughout his Empire. Proceeding next to Acheen, the King of that territory renewed his charter with the Company, and granted them additional privileges, after which Captain Best arrived safely at London with a valuable cargo of spices, and received many distinguished marks of approbation.

The success of this last expedition gave additional vigour to the exertions of the Company, who wishing to profit by the high opinion entertained of them by the people of India, suggested the propriety of sending out a splendid embassy to the Mogul,

with a special commission to conclude a more general treaty of commerce with that sovereign. James, who had always been favourably disposed towards the Company, consented to their proposal, and appointed Sir Thomas Roe, as his ambassador extraordinary to India.

The magnificent presents, and other appendages of the embassy being in readiness, Sir Thomas sailed in March 1614, for Surat, where he landed after a voyage of six months. As soon as his arrival was known, the Emperor sent a vakeel to conduct him to his residence at Ajmeer, where he was received with greater pomp, and magnificence than had even before been witnessed, even in an Oriental court. He resided there seven months, and at length concluded a treaty highly favourable to the Company, but not equal to his own wishes, as the prime minister of Jehangeer, the Mogul, listening to the insinuations of the Portugueze, excited a degree of suspicion in the mind of that monarch, relative to the intent of the English, which it was difficult to overcome. They, however, by this treaty, obtained leave to send agents to Surat, Sually, Baroach, and many other parts of the Empire, and thus they soon completely turned the Oriental commerce in their favour; the Portuguese having before the close of the 17th century been nearly expelled, and the Dutch only retaining possession of the Spice Islands.

It is necessary here to observe, that in the commercial history of India, no nation appears to have made such a rapid and successful progress as the Dutch. Having long been accustomed to procure the commodities of the East from Lisbon, it is not surprising that the ardent and emulous disposition of that people should have led them to attempt the establishment of a trade of their own. Accordingly, towards the close of the 16th century, we find them making the most extraordinary efforts to fit out ships for the Indian seas; and though they at first encountered unparalleled difficulties, they were not disheartened, but continued their enterprises with unremitting activity. Having freed themselves from the oppressive shackles of Spain, the restraints which had been imposed upon their speculative ardour gave way before the spontaneous exertions of their indefatigable industry, and in 1594 they attempted to execute their favourite project of sailing to China by the Northern Ocean, which they hoped would prove a much shorter passage than that by the Cape, and that they should thus be enabled to supply the European markets with the produce of India at a far lower rate than could be afforded by their competitors. A small squadron was accordingly dispatched, under the command of William Barentz, a distinguished navigator, who sailed from Amsterdam in the beginning of 1596, but on reaching the latitude of 78 degrees, his squadron was surrounded by mountains of ice, and his crew, alarmed at their situation, insisted on returning to Holland, with whose demand he was obliged to comply; and he arrived in the Texel after an absence of five months. Barentz, however, was held in such high estimation by the States, that, on his own proposition, he was again employed to discover a north-east passage by the Straits of Wygatz, and sailed for the north seas in June, 1596. The Dutch government, and indeed the whole

nation, were extremely sanguine concerning this expedition; but their hopes were proportionately disappointed by the return of Barentz, at the end of four months, without having made any new discovery.

The Dutch then turned all their attention to the navigation round the Cape of Good Hope; and on receiving an application from Cornelius Houtman, an enterprising Dutchman, who was at that time imprisoned in Lisbon by the Portuguese government, on suspicion of favouring the interests of his countrymen, they resolved to procure his liberty, which they did by paying a considerable sum of money to his oppressors. On his arrival at Amsterdam his information appeared of such importance, that a Company of merchants was immediately formed in that city, and in less than three months, or in the autumn of 1596, a squadron of four ships sailed, under the command of Houtman, direct for the eastern Archipelago, which, after a passage of nine months, anchored off Bantam. The inhabitants of Java received the Dutch commander with great courtesy, and Houtman had already begun to take in a cargo of spices, but suspecting that the Malay merchants had given him goods of an inferior quality, he rashly remonstrated with the King, who ordered him to be thrown into a dungeon; and he only saved himself from assassination by offering as a ransom to the tyrant a part of the money appropriated to the purchase of his cargo. He then secretly left Bantam with his fleet, and arrived in the Texel towards the end of 1598.

The importance of having opened a direct intercourse with the east, caused the merchants to feel little disappointment at the return of their ships in a great degree empty; but in the beginning of 1599 they sent out another squadron, consisting of eight ships, under the command of Houtman and Van-Neck, which arrived at Acheen, in Sumatra, towards the end of that year: they also dispatched a squadron of four ships to the southern parts of Java: while the enterprising Company at Rotterdam sent out another of five ships, under James Mahu, a native of Antwerp, by the hazardous passage of the Straits of Magellan: this commander, after encountering imminent danger, and losing two of his vessels, reached the Moluccas in nineteen months.

These and subsequent expeditions proved highly successful, and in the short space of five years, the Dutch trade with India had so prodigiously increased, that in 1600 they sent out forty ships, from 400 to 600 tons burthen, which procured them an almost entire monopoly of the spice trade.

During the rapid advancement of their trade with the Indian isles, the Dutch were involved in frequent and serious disputes with the natives, and were in almost incessant warfare with the Spaniards and Portuguese, who, foreseeing the certain annihilation of their own commerce in the successful enterprises of their rivals, resorted to every kind of treachery and duplicity, in order to prejudice the islanders against their new intruders. On the other hand, the Dutch retorted, by secretly representing that the Portuguese had come to India more in the character of warriors than in that of merchants, and that their real object was to reduce the natives to slavery, and force them

to abjure the religion of Mahomed; while their own gentle manners tended to give much plausibility to their assertions. The consequence was, a speedy expulsion from the Moluccas of all the Portuguese settlers; and, at Acheen, so vindictive were the Malays, that having stormed a small fortress belonging to the Portuguese, at the bottom of the bay, they massacred every European who was found within it. The Dutch, who were in reality the instigators of these outrages, did not fail to turn them to their own advantage, and succeeded in obtaining exclusively from the inhabitants of Celebes, Ternate, and the Moluccas, all the finest aromatics which those islands produced.

The intelligence of these events did not fail to excite the most violent animosity of Philip of Spain against the Dutch, and his first effort was to send out all the armed ships of Spain and Portugal, with a view to intercept the next squadron that they might send to India. The combined fleet, consisting of 30 ships, proceeded towards Cape Verd, and in May, 1601, fell in with a Dutch fleet of eight Indiamen, each of which, though unprepared for war, carried sixteen small guns, and sixty men. Notwithstanding this great disparity, the Dutch commander, Spilbergen, resolved to fight his way through the enemy's line; and the Spanish and Portuguese fleets endeavouring to surround that of Spilbergen in three divisions, fell into such confusion, that after an action of two hours they were obliged to retire, while the Dutch triumphantly pursued their voyage.

In the mean time, the Portuguese governors in India not being able to procure reinforcements from their own country, and knowing by experience that from the growing influence of their contemporaries, they would soon be driven from every spot they possessed, resorted again to artifice, and in their turn prejudiced the Malays against the Dutch commanders then at Acheen, amongst whom was the celebrated Houtman: —the latter soon perceiving in the King an uncommon degree of coolness, demanded an explanation, but obtaining no answer, he returned to his ship. On the following night his vessel was surrounded by a number of armed proas, who endeavoured to board, but after a desperate conflict of two hours, they were defeated with great slaughter, though the Dutch in this affair lost their gallant commander. Shortly after this event, Spilbergen arrived at Acheen, and forced the King not only to make the most humble acknowledgment for the outrage, but to renew the commercial relations which had proved so advantageous to his country.

The success of the Dutch having for some time after this event been uninterrupted, their markets were overstocked with the produce of India, and to prevent its depreciation they were under the necessity of joining the funds of their different Companies into one body corporate, which in March 1602, received a patent for twenty-one years, under the title of "the Dutch East India Company."—Their whole stock consisted of 6,600,000 guilders, or about 600,000l. This effort gave new vigour to their operations, and in June 1602, they sent out a fleet to India, consisting of fourteen sail, under Admiral Van Waerwyk, which arrived in safety at the Moluccas, and was soon

followed by another of thirteen sail, under Vander Hagen, who had on board a considerable body of troops. With this force he invested the Portugueze settlements at Amboyna and Tidore, and captured them, together with a number of vessels, which were lying in the harbour richly laden. Thus the whole of the possessions of the Portugueze in the Moluccas fell into the hands of the Dutch, and which, notwithstanding many attempts, with partial success, they were never able to regain.

Pursuing their views of aggrandizement, the Dutch next formed an alliance with the King of Candy, which had for its object the expulsion of the Portugueze from Ceylon; and a squadron under De Weert having fallen in with, and defeated one belonging to Portugal, near the settlement of Negombo, he proceeded to Battacola, the principal port of the King of Candy, with his prizes.

On appearing before the King, a serious misunderstanding arose respecting the kind treatment by De Weert of the Portugueze prisoners; and accusations having been made against the Dutch commander, of the non-performance of his treaty, he resented it in so explicit a manner, that the King ordered him to be seized, and thrown into a dungeon. The brave Admiral refused to submit to this treatment, and defended himself for some time with his sword, till being overpowered by numbers, he was struck dead by a blow from a scimitar. By this event the crews of the Dutch fleet were panic struck; and the Portugueze being about to take advantage of their rupture with the Candians, in order to attack them, they were obliged to sail with precipitation from Battacola for Amboyna, where their settlements were in a very precarious state.

It would be impossible, in our brief limits, to describe the particulars of every naval and military action which took place in the Indian seas, and islands, between the Dutch, and their inveterate rivals, the Portugueze and Spaniards, till their attainment of that high state of commercial prosperity which rendered them the most opulent merchants of Europe. The vicissitudes of fortune were rapid, and for several years the Dutch in India were surrounded by enemies: they, however, maintained the good opinion of the natives, by gaining frequent victories over the squadrons of Portugal and Spain, in the Indian seas; and their success was finally completed by assisting the King of Candy, in 1612, to repel a serious invasion of the Portugueze, who had advanced within a few miles of his capital. The invaders were repulsed entirely by the judicious conduct of Boshkoveur, the Dutch naval commander; and in return for this service, his nation received a grant of those extensive and valuable establishments in Ceylon, which have lately reverted to Great Britain. In 1617, they obtained equal advantages at Bantam, where they were allowed to build a factory; while their possessions in the eastern seas were so numerous, that they extended over the greatest part of the Archipelago. At Siam, and Japan, they also possessed factories; and in 1622, they had built the magnificent city of Batavia, which was made the seat of government for the Dutch possessions in that quarter of the world.

The great commercial rivalry on the continent of Asia, however, principally rested

at this period as well as for a century afterwards, between Britain and France; though the views of the latter were not fully developed till after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, at which time the possessions of the French were of considerable extent. The British also, at this time, had settlements at Surat, Bombay, Dabul, Carwar, Tellicherry, Anjengo, Tegapatan, Madras, Vizagapatam, Balagore, and Calcutta. The French possessed Chandernagore and Pondicherry.

The first war in India between the French and English originated in the intrigues of Dupleix, commander of the French troops, who, in 1747, having assisted Muzaphier Sing, cousin of Nazir Sing, Nabob of the Carnatic, in a rebellion against his relative, the English were obliged to assist the latter with a force under Colonel Laurence.—Dupleix however withdrew his troops in the night, which obliged his ally to surrender. Nazir Sing spared his enemy's life, in return for which he was secretly murdered by the traitor in his tent; and the immense plunder found in the camp was mostly seized by Dupleix, who immediately assumed the authority of the prince, and appointed Chunda Saib, a colleague of Muzaphier, to be Nabob of Arcot, the real Nabob, Anaverdy Khan, having been murdered by these confederates in 1749. The English government took the part of the son of Anaverdy, and being aided by several other Nabobs, Muzaphier was defeated and put to death. Chunda Saib, however, by large promises to Dupleix, obtained from him 4000 Seapoys and about 500 French, with which force he conquered Anaverdy, regained the government, and ceded to the French the town of Velur and its dependencies, consisting of 45 villages. In the mean time Mahomed Ali Khan, son of Anaverdy Khan, having been protected and assisted by the British, made them several important cessions, and being seconded by a force under Mr. Clive, who had till then been a writer in the Company's service, the enemy were entirely defeated by the latter on the plains of Arcani, in December, 1751. In 1752, Mr. Clive, with 300 Europeans, and as many natives, defeated near Arcot a body of the enemy, consisting of 1500 Seapoys, 1700 cavalry, and 150 Frenchmen, with eight pieces of artillery. The whole of the French surrendered on this occasion, and their baggage and cannon fell into our possession. Mr. Clive soon afterwards cut off the retreat of the French to Pondicherry, and captured their whole force, with d'Anteuil their commander. Chunda Saib, who had an army of 3000 men near Trichinopoly, passing about the same time through Tanjore, fell into the hands of the Nabob, who struck off his head, and his army was totally routed by Major Laurence. Dupleix, however, instead of abandoning his schemes, assumed the rank of an Indian prince, and produced forged commissions, pretending that the Mogul had appointed him governor of the Carnatic.

Thus a series of hostilities was continued between the French and English Companies till Dupleix was recalled; and M. Gadeheu, his successor, concluded a treaty, the basis of which was, that neither of the Companies should in future interfere in any disturbances amongst the native princes. But the French, pursuing their systematic

duplicity, endeavoured, immediately after the signing of this treaty, to get possession of the fortress of Golconda, and all the provinces in the Deccan ; and they even sent a force to the country of the Polygars, to induce them to resist paying their tribute, which was divided between the Nabob and the English Company. This brought on a renewal of hostilities ; and the English, after reducing the refractory Polygars, captured the strong town of Madura, about 60 miles from Trichinopoly, when a neighbouring Polygar Prince offered them two settlements on the coast opposite to Ceylon. Favoured by this acquisition, the English army under Colonel Heron captured Coilgoody, and Tinevelly :—at a fort called Nellecotta, it is said that he barbarously refused quarter to the garrison, and massacred 400 men, women, and children. He was soon afterwards disgraced for misconduct, in suffering the baggage of the English to be surprised by the natives in the pass of Natam.

In March, 1755, a very important advantage was gained by a few vessels under Commodore James, who attacked and destroyed the possessions of Tulagee Angria, a Mahratta pirate, who had long done the most serious injury to the commerce of the Europeans. This chief possessed several islands near Bombay, and an extent of coast nearly 180 miles in length, while his successes had struck such terror into the European sailors, that in 1754, he captured with his small vessels two Dutch frigates, and a sloop.

Until the expedition of Commodore James, the Company had been obliged to keep up a naval force to protect their trade, at an expense of 50,000l. per annum ; but the Commodore attacked Gerrah, the capital of the abovementioned pirate, with so much success, that he fled to the Mahrattas, and the English took possession of the place, in which they found 200 pieces of brass cannon, a quantity of ammunition, and property to the amount of 125,000l.

Our countrymen, however, were doomed to a continued continental warfare, for in 1756, Suraja Dowla, the new Nabob of Arcot, and grandson of Anaverdy Khan, having found a pretence for war in the repairs made by the English at the fortifications of Calcutta, entered the field on the 30th May, with an army of 40,000 infantry, 30,000 cavalry, and 400 elephants. He first invested the English fort at Cassimbuzar with 20,000 men, and elated by its surrender, he immediately proceeded to invest Calcutta :—here he proposed an accommodation, provided the English government would pay him his duty upon the trade for fifteen years, deliver up the Indian merchants in the fort, and defray the expenses of his numerous army ; which being refused, he captured that place, after a siege of three days, principally by the treachery of the Dutch guard, who opened the gates to the besiegers. The Nabob, in revenge, although he had promised that no injury should be done to the garrison, no sooner entered the place, than he ordered all the English to be shut up in a sort of cave, called the Black-hole, where out of 146, only 22 were found alive the next morning.—In consequence of this disaster, Colonel Clive was sent to Bengal, on board Admiral Watson's fleet, with about 1000 sepoys, and 400 Europeans, with whom he landed at Fulta, and subdued

the forts Busbudgia, Tauna, Fort William, and Calcutta, as well as the large town of Hoogly, which was filled with the richest merchandize. A successful attack was next made on the camp of Suraja Dowla, which induced him, in February, 1757, to conclude a treaty, by which the English gained very considerable advantages.

Scarcely had this contest terminated in the East, when news was received of a war between England and France, and the reduction of the French power again became an object of importance ; but the Nabob Suraja Dowla informed the council of Bengal, that if hostilities were carried into his country by the English, he would assist the French with all his power. Admiral Watson, in reply, wished the Nabob to guarantee a treaty of neutrality on the part of the French ; which he refused to do, in consequence of the latter having persuaded him, that after the subjugation of Chandernagore, the English would turn their arms against himself. Hostilities were then commenced, and after a vigorous assault, in resisting which the French displayed great bravery, Chandernagore was taken ; and the Nabob having shewn marks of displeasure at this event, it was resolved to depose him, by supporting Meer Jaffier Ali Khan, who had married the sister of Aliverdy Khan, Suraja's predecessor. The army destined to effect this revolution marched under Colonel Clive, on the 13th of June, and on reaching the Nabob's frontiers, the Colonel sent him a letter, which upbraided him for his conduct, and concluded with observing that the rains being about to commence, he had found it necessary to wait on him immediately. This was followed by a decisive action in the plains of Plassay, in which the Nabob's troops were routed in every direction, and he was obliged to fly from his capital in the disguise of a faqir. He was accompanied by two attendants, who robbed him on the road, and being found two days afterwards in the most miserable state, he was brought to Muxadabad, and beheaded by Meer Jaffier's eldest son. The usurper was then declared by Colonel Clive, the lawful Nabob of Bengal.

As soon as this affair had been concluded, Major Coote was dispatched with a body of sepoys, in pursuit of some French prisoners who had escaped from Chandernagore, and the advantages which resulted from this expedition are too considerable to be passed over in silence. He compelled Ramnarin, a powerful Rajah, to swear allegiance to Meer Jaffier, and discovered the process employed in his territories for making salt-petre, which has since been of the utmost consequence to this country.

On the 16th August, 1757, Admiral Watson died, to the great regret of all the British residents in India. He was succeeded by Admiral Pococke. In this month the success of the British appeared to turn, as the French under Bussy, and those who had escaped under Law, from Chandernagore, formed a junction, and by the conquest of Vizagapatam, and other posts, became masters of all the coast from Ganjam to Masulipatam, together with several of the English factories in that direction : in the southern provinces also the rebel Polygars defeated Mazuphe Khan, and conquered the city of Madura. It was however, after an unsuccessful attempt to reduce it, purchased by the English in

1758, for 170,000 rupees. The whole campaign of this year proved unfavourable, as our force was reduced at its termination to 1718 men, while that of the French amounted to 3400, exclusive of natives.

Some victories were nevertheless gained at sea by Admiral Pococke, who defeated the French naval force on the 24th of March, and 3d of August, with great loss on their side, and but little on our own. By land General Lally retaliated, by reducing and destroying Fort St. David, and committing the most shocking ravages in the neighbouring villages.—But the general indignation excited by his conduct caused him to be defeated before Tanjore, and from that time several of his enterprises were equally unsuccessful.

On the 10th of September, 1759, Admiral Pococke defeated the French a third time, though the number of their ships and men was infinitely superior to ours. The enemy had 1500 men killed and wounded, while our loss did not exceed 569.—After this victory Admiral Pococke returned to England.

The defeat of the French by sea had now thrown a damp on the spirits of their land troops, which they could not recover; and on the 22d of January, 1760, they mustered all their force near Wandewash, and risked a general action with Colonel Coote, who had an army of only 1700 Europeans, and 3000 natives, while that of the French amounted to 2200 Europeans, and 10,800 blacks, with a proportionate superiority of cannon. In three hours, however, they were totally defeated, and obliged to retreat with the utmost rapidity to Pondicherry. This disaster was followed by the speedy conquest of all the French forts in India, and finally by the reduction of Pondicherry, which capitulated on the 15th January, 1761; and thus the French power in the East was for some time annihilated.

It is a lamentable reflection, that the English, by their insidious policy, and tyrannical conduct in the East, have on many occasions tarnished the lustre of their most glorious achievements. On the subjugation of the French, they ravaged every acre of territory between Wandewash and Pondicherry, in revenge for a similar outrage of the enemy near Madras; and afterwards, finding that Meer Jaffier, the person whom they had made Nabob of Bengal, by the destruction of Suraja Dowla, was unable to pay the enormous exactions they had levied upon him, they brought forward a variety of frivolous charges and accusations, some of which had not a shadow of evidence, and in violation of the most solemn treaty, he was secretly surrounded in his palace by a corps under Colonel Caillaud, when being forced into a boat with a part of his family, and some jewels, he was sent off to Calcutta. The actors in this infamous affair then placed Meer Cossim Khan on the musnud, and afterwards had the effrontery to declare that they had been promised 20 lacks of rupees in the event of his success, which was to be secured by the assassination of Meer Jaffier, whose mild disposition had procured him general esteem.

Meer Cossim however was a very different character from his predecessor; and

profiting by experience, resolved to rid himself of the shackles of the Company as speedily as possible. With this view he removed his capital from Muxadabad to Mongheer, about 200 miles farther from Calcutta, which he fortified, and formed in it a garrison of Armenian, and Tartarian troops, together with all the sepoys who had been dismissed from the English service.—With these he endeavoured to discipline his Indian army, and soon raised a formidable train of artillery. When his project was sufficiently matured, he began to abolish the immunities paid by Jaffier to the Company; and having at his accession ceded territories to the English worth 700,000l. a year, besides other revenues amounting to 70,000l. per annum, he insisted that he had a right to remunerate himself by subjecting the English traders in his dominions to certain duties. On this Mr. Vansittart was sent by the government of Calcutta to remonstrate; but this gentleman was so disconcerted by a threat of Cossim to lay open the trade entirely to all nations, and thus ruin the private commerce of the British factory, that he entered into a treaty, by which the English trade was submitted to certain restrictions. The government at Calcutta however refused to ratify it, and immediately commenced hostilities.

The first attack was made at Patna, a city about 300 miles from Calcutta, in which the English had a fortified factory, with a small European force. These troops however surprised the city, which had a strong garrison; but not taking the necessary precautions to secure themselves, it was recaptured in a few hours, and all the English were put to the sword. This act stimulated Cossim to perpetrate others far more perfidious, for the council of Calcutta having sent some deputies, with Mr. Amyatt at their head, to treat for a new commercial agreement, and thus effect a reconciliation, he was waylaid near Muxadabad, and the whole of his party cut to pieces.—The council then thought proper again to declare Meer Jaffier, whom they had deposed, to be Nabob of Bengal, and Major Adams, with only one regiment of the line, some sepoys, and 12 pieces of cannon, gained several victories over the natives, particularly near Cassimbazar, a branch of the Ganges, where they defeated 10,000 of Cossim's troops, and captured a fort defended by entrenchments fifteen feet high, with many pieces of artillery. Pursuing their victorious career with reinforcements, they attacked, on the 2d August, 1763, the main forces of the Indian army on the banks of the Nunas Nullas, and after an obstinate battle of four hours, obliged them to retire with the loss of all their cannon. The enemy's troops on this occasion amounted to 20,000 horse, and 8000 foot.

Mongheer, the capital of Cossim, was then subdued, after a siege of nine days; and this tyrant, in a paroxysm of despair, retaliated by ordering the massacre of all the prisoners taken at Patna. For this purpose a German assassin, named Somers, was hired, who invited the English to an entertainment, and placed a party on the top of the house to fire down upon them as they entered, while others were seized, and murdered in a manner still more barbarous. The prisoners amounted to about two hundred in number, none of whom were saved except Dr. Fullarton, who had received

a pardon from Meer Cossim a few days before the execution of this sanguinary project. It should be added, to the honour of the natives, that they at first refused to fire upon the prisoners, unless the latter were furnished with arms, on which Somers run several of them through the body!

The English next besieged Patna, which surrendered in eight days; and Meer Cossim having no longer any place capable of resistance, fled to Suja Dowla, Nabob of Oude, leaving our forces in possession of the whole of Bengal.

After Meer Jaffier, the deposed Nabob, had been restored by the Company to his throne, they attempted to form an alliance with the abovementioned Nabob of Oude, which he scornfully rejected.—hostilities were consequently resolved on against him, and Colonel H. Munro was appointed to succeed Major Adams, who died soon after the conquest of Patna. Meer Cossim assisted the Nabob, took the command of his forces, and having fallen in with a party of English put them to death, and sent their heads to Suja Dowla. Having then under his command an army of 50,000 men, with a proportionate train of artillery, he again resolved to risk a general action with the English, and on the 22d of October, 1764, the engagement took place at Buxard, about 100 miles above Patna. Victory was firmly contested, and at length terminated in favour of the English, who lost in killed and wounded only 90 Europeans, and 700 natives, while the enemy had 6000 killed, and lost 180 pieces of cannon.

Several forts were then successively taken by Colonel Munro; and the Mogul, to whom Suja Dowla was Grand Vizier, having concluded a treaty with the English, the last-mentioned officer was compelled to make an abject surrender, after sustaining another defeat by General Carnac near Calpi. Before his surrender he permitted the escape of Meer Cossim and Somers the assassin, and neither threats nor intreaties could induce him to disclose the place of their retreat.

In February, 1765, Meer Jaffier, the Nabob of Bengal, died, and the succession being disputed between his eldest surviving son Najem ul Dowla, and a grandson of his eldest son Miran, deceased, who was then only seven years old, the council of Calcutta decreed that Najem should succeed his father, on condition of paying to the Company the annual sum of 800,000l.; that he should receive, as prime minister, a person appointed by the council; and that he should bind himself to pay due attention to the complaints of this assembly, against any of his officers. The Nabob accepted the degrading conditions.

By this and numerous proceedings of a similar nature, the council of Calcutta had alarmed their superiors at home, who at length found it necessary to send out a Governor General with unlimited powers; and this great appointment was conferred upon Lord Clive, who arrived at Calcutta on the 3d of May, 1765. His first act, as is generally the case with men in power, was to undo what had been done by his predecessors, the council, and to place Suja Dowla again in the possession of his dominions; but the new financial regulations which he adopted, tended rather to

embarrass than to enrich the Company; and though the extent of their territory was equal to that of the largest kingdom in Europe, their affairs were in such a distracted state, that government thought proper to subject the province of Bengal to the authority of the crown. About this period also, they were involved in fresh difficulties by the arts of Hyder Ally, who had in some manner risen from the rank of a Sepoy to that of a Prince; and who justly considering the English influence as a bar to his ambition, had induced the Nizam of the Deccan to make war against them. Hyder, shortly took the field; but being defeated in September, 1767, by Colonel Smith, near Error, he was deserted by the Nizam, who made a separate treaty with the English, and ceded to them the duanny of the Balegat Carnatic, as the price of his duplicity.

During the remainder of that year, the war was removed by Hyder to the mountainous country, while a detachment from Bombay captured his principal sea-port, Mangalore, with nine ships in the harbour; but the place was soon retaken. Hyder, on the other hand, derived great advantage from some disorders resulting from the appointment of field deputies in the British army, to controul the commander in chief, a practice which was attended with such corruption and created such disgust, that several of our officers deserted to the enemy, and many forts were given up which might have made a strong resistance. The subsequent conduct of these deputies, who prevented General Smith from proceeding against Hyder's capital, when he had conquered nearly the whole of his territories, gave the enemy an opportunity of collecting his forces; and after ravaging the country of the Nabob of Arcot, the most faithful ally of the English, he obliged them to confine their operations to the defence of the Carnatic. He also obtained an incredible number of adventurers by his success in partial, without risking general engagements; and in a short time he was in possession of 90,000 cavalry. He was, however, attacked at a fort called Mulwaggle, by Colonel Wood, who with 460 Europeans, and 2300 Sepoys, defeated a force of 14,000 horse, 12,000 infantry, and six battalions of Sepoys. But the war still continued to the disadvantage of the Company; and Hyder at last appearing suddenly before Madras, occasioned so much alarm, that a treaty was concluded with him on the 3d April, 1769, which merely comprised the restoration of the places taken by both armies, and an agreement that each party should assist the other, when attacked by their respective enemies.

But it appears that the presidency of Madras soon proved the insincerity of their intentions; for Hyder Ally becoming involved in a war with the Mahrattas, they several times refused him the stipulated assistance, which excited in him an implacable hatred against the English, that was never afterwards overcome: he consequently applied for assistance to the French government, who seconded his views with the utmost dispatch, and thus enabled him to defeat the Mahrattas, and conclude a treaty with them upon the most advantageous terms.

The Mahrattas now, in their turn, became the most decided enemies of the English,

and their animosity originated in the following circumstances. A dispute having arisen amongst the descendants of the Rajah of Berar, and Rogonaut Row, respecting their pretensions to the dignity of Peishwa, or Ram Rajah, the latter murdered Narain Row, who had been confided to his care by Mada Row, the deceased Peishwa, and fled to Bombay, where, the justice of his cause not being at all investigated, he was protected by the English. This event occasioned not only the resentment of Hyder Ally, but a confederation of most of the Princes of India, who seemed resolved to expel from their country, those whom they considered as the most faithless of European intruders. Hyder therefore soon assembled an army of 100,000 men, and with a body of French troops under Count de Lally, proceeded against Madras. These were to be opposed by only 1500 Europeans and 4,200 Sepoys, under Sir H. Munro, who marched towards Conjeveram where Hyder's troops were stationed, expecting to join a detachment under Colonel Baillie. Hyder however had dispatched his son, Tippoo Saib, to cut off this last mentioned detachment, with 30,000 horse, 8000 foot, and 12 pieces of cannon; but the brave handful of troops under Colonel Baillie repulsed this immense force of the enemy with great slaughter, and succeeded in joining Sir Hector on the 9th of September, though they were exposed to a galling fire from the whole of the enemy's artillery.

Intelligence was now received that Hyder was advancing with his whole force to the assistance of his son; and having fallen in with Colonel Baillie's detachment, he opened upon his small party nearly 70 pieces of cannon. Perhaps there never was a more distinguished defence than that of our troops on this occasion: they repulsed his main body several times; and it was not till he had been joined by Tippoo Saib, that he could make any impression upon the British line. But this event at last taking place, in consequence of an irresistible superiority of numbers, Colonel Baillie withdrew the remainder of his force to an eminence, where, though without ammunition, they repulsed the enemy thirteen separate times, and after losing 700 Europeans, the Colonel received offers of quarter, provided the remaining force grounded their arms. This, however, was no sooner complied with, than the barbarian troops rushed upon them, and began an indiscriminate massacre, in which they were only checked by the honourable and resolute interference of the French commanders, Lally and Pimoran. The effect of this gallant resistance upon Hyder was so great, that he ever after regarded the English with a degree of apprehension bordering upon terror.

In consequence of the disaster of Colonel Baillie, Sir Eyre Coote was solicited by the supreme council of Bengal to take upon him the management of the war, to which he consented, and from that moment the balance turned decidedly in our favour. Hyder now changed his plan of operations, by detaching parties to besiege the principal forts of the Company; but finding himself closely pursued by Sir Eyre, he once more resolved to try the event of a pitched battle. With this intent he assembled an army of 40,000 cavalry, and 15,000 Sepoys, with other troops, which made his whole

force amount to 200,000 men. On the 1st of July, 1781, a dreadful battle took place, and lasted from nine in the morning, till four in the afternoon, when the English, after experiencing a most obstinate resistance, gained a complete victory; but owing to a want of cavalry they were prevented from following up their success. Hyder now appeared in a state of desperation, and on the 27th of August, he risked a second engagement on the spot where he had defeated Colonel Baillie. Here, however, he was again totally routed; and these successes were followed by a third and a fourth victory over him in the same year, in all of which he displayed uncommon bravery, and had the mortification to see thousands of his best troops cut to pieces.

Although Hyder was still extremely formidable, our victories over him enabled the council to withdraw a part of the troops which had taken the field; and an expedition was now planned against the Dutch settlements of Negapatam and Trincomalee, the first of which after a short siege, in which the British sailors displayed their accustomed intrepidity, submitted to our arms; and the latter, owing to the obstinacy of the Governor, was taken by storm. The gallant victors, however, gave quarter the moment they entered the fort. They took here about 400 Europeans, with two Indiamen, and a large quantity of stores and ammunition.

Soon after this event Suffrein, the French Admiral, arrived off Coromandel, with eleven ships of the line and several frigates; but falling in with Sir Edward Hughes, near Madras, the English Admiral retook six ships that he had captured, which induced the Frenchman to risk an action, in order to recover them. In this, as well as in another which followed soon after, neither party gained any advantage, the ships of Sir Edward Hughes and Commodore King being reduced almost to a wreck.

These engagements contributed still farther to damp the spirits of Hyder, who had long been expecting relief from the French government; and he soon after experienced another defeat of his own forces before Tellcherry, which place he had blockaded since the commencement of hostilities. But about the same period, Tippoo Saib contrived to surround 2000 English under Colonel Brathwaite, by a body of 15,000 cavalry, and 5000 infantry; and yet, however astonishing it may appear, this brave party resisted his repeated attacks for the space of three days, by which time most of the British officers had perished!

During these transactions Hyder received the long expected assistance from France, and immediately captured Cuddalore; but hearing that the forces under Sir Eyre Coote were approaching towards his magazines at Arnee, he risked another engagement; and though he possessed immense advantages by having his artillery planted on eminences, he was nevertheless again routed by the unparalleled bravery of the English troops.

The next event of importance occurred on the 3d July, 1783, when an engagement took place between the French and English fleets, which terminated greatly to the disadvantage of the former: being, however, joined by some additional ships from Europe, they recaptured Trincomalee, which was not in a condition to stand a siege,

and proved a serious loss to the English. Soon after the place had surrendered, Sir Edward Hughes arrived off the port with twelve ships of the line, and attacked the French Admiral, who had fifteen sail; on which occasion much damage was done on both sides, but nothing decisive resulted from the combat.

It was now ascertained that the French government intended to make a vast effort, in order to recover their influence in India; and many thousand of their regular regiments had already arrived on the coast of Coromandel; but Sir Richard Bickerton having also arrived with 5000 troops, the presidency of Bombay was induced to make a powerful diversion towards the kingdom of Mysore, the sovereignty of which had been usurped by Hyder, under the title of Dayva; while he possessed to the northward his favourite kingdom of Canara, a great part of which was denominated Bidnore; but had been changed by him to the name of Hydernagur. Some skirmishing had already taken place in this quarter, in which the British were partially successful, though opposed by six times their number under Tippoo; but in 1783, the campaign was opened by the grand expedition against the kingdom of Canara, and General Matthews formed the design of carrying the war into the heart of the enemy's country, by the investiture of Onore, a city about 300 miles south of Bombay. This place was soon taken by assault; when a scene of rapine ensued, which, according to the most moderate accounts, could only be equalled by the avaricious oppressions of the Spaniards in Mexico: a vast sum of money, and a considerable quantity of jewels, were said to have been seized by General Matthews, who was so ardent in the pursuit of plunder, that the army became almost in a state of open mutiny, and many of the principal officers threw up their commissions, and returned in disgust to Bombay.

The same disgraceful scenes were repeated on the capture of the city of Bidnore, which soon followed that of Onore, and in which first-mentioned place the property seized on by the military was supposed to amount to 1,200,000l. But the General, after declaring that it was the property of the captors, sent it off under convoy of his brother, to Bombay, pretending that it had been secured, by the capitulation, to the Mahomedan Governor.

The exploits of the English were, however, considerably favoured by the death of Hyder Ally, which occurred towards the end of 1782; but in the spring of 1783 Tippoo resumed his military operations with great vigour, and in April advanced against General Matthews with an army of 150,000 men, with which having cut off his retreat, he besieged him in Bidnore, where he capitulated, on the conditions that the English army should be suffered to march out with the honours of war, and return to Bombay; but that the public property should not be molested by them. Tippoo, however, soon broke this treaty, under the pretence that a quantity of the public money had been embezzled; and it was even asserted in some English publications, that on the surrender of the fort to Tippoo, there was not a single rupee found in it. For this report there indeed seems some foundation, as General Matthews and about twenty of

his principal officers were seized the next morning, and conducted in chains to Seringapatam, where they were all poisoned with the milk of the cocoa-tree. A short time previous to this event, the General had been deprived of his commission by the Supreme Council.

During the occurrence of these transactions, the war with the Mahrattas was carried on with considerable success. It was this war which arose from the protection afforded by the British to the assassin Rogonaut Row, and in which Hyder Ally had become a confederate. In 1780 General Goddard had reduced the whole province of Guzerat, stormed the camp of Madajee Scindia, while Major Popham captured the important fortress of Gwallior, in the territories of the Rajah of Gohud, which had a strong Mahratta garrison, and had always been considered as impregnable.* In the same year the army of Scindia, consisting of 30,000 men, was defeated by General Carnac; and thus the Mahrattas were induced to conclude a separate peace with the English.

The pecuniary difficulties of the government, however, were so great, that extraordinary measures were of necessity resorted to. Cheyt Sing, the Rajah of Benares, was required to pay 50,000l. as his share of the public burthens, though he had already contributed 240,000l.; and the requisition being continued for three successive years, he exhibited some signs of rebellion, which induced Mr. Hastings to pay him a visit; and it is asserted that he not only levied upon him a fine of half a million of money, but put the prince under arrest. His government was then declared vacant, and bestowed on the next heir; by which the revenue derived by the government of Bengal was increased from 240,000l. to 400,000l. per annum. This was one of the principal transactions which caused the important and very singular trial of Mr. Hastings, whose general conduct, after the verdict of the House of Peers, cannot in justice be considered, even by the prejudiced observer of passing events, to have originated in any other motives, than those which were calculated to promote the interests of his country.

At length, on the 19th May, 1783, Tippoo besieged Mangalore, which made the most vigorous resistance under Major Campbell, till it was given up by the general pacification, which soon afterwards took place, and confirmed the establishment of the British Empire in Bengal.

From this period till the year 1790, India enjoyed a degree of tranquillity to which it had long been unaccustomed; but the restless disposition of Tippoo Saib, with his perpetual and determined hostility towards the Company, which was fostered by the animosity of the French, then induced him to make various infractions on the treaty, by the invasion of the territories of our ally the Nabob. Thus we again saw the flames of war kindled as it were in the heart of our Eastern possessions; and we had no alternative but vigorous resistance. The chief command of the British army now devolved upon Lord Cornwallis, seconded by General Abercromby, who was

* See the plate in the Views in Hindostan, and the annexed description.

powerfully aided by the warlike Mahrattas; and their united efforts were attended with signal success. The Mahrattas and the Nizam first laid siege to the strong fortresses of Durwar and Copaul, though with little prospect of success, as the enemy appeared to be well supplied with provisions. At the same time Bangalore, the most important place next to Seringapatam, was invested by the British forces under Lord Cornwallis; and while our allies, disheartened by the resistance they had met with, were debating whether they should not convert their sieges into blockades, and thus set their armies at liberty, for more active operations, they received intelligence of the fall of Bangalore. This news, while it elevated the spirit of the besiegers, so far intimidated the garrisons, that they immediately surrendered.

At Bangalore, and in all the conquered forts, the victors found immense supplies of provisions and military stores; and while Lord Cornwallis was endeavouring to form a junction with the Nizam's cavalry, and was occupied in deriving reinforcements from the Carnatic, the allies obtained possession of the whole of the enemy's extensive territories between the Khristna and the Tumbuddra.

These advantages caused so much dismay in Tippoo's army, that he found it advisable to make a precipitate retreat towards Seringapatam, whither he was pursued by the allied forces, with a view to bring him to an action before he could gain his capital. Lord Cornwallis therefore proceeded to Arrakery, a large village about ten miles from Seringapatam, and encamped there on the 14th of May, 1791, in expectation of being joined by the force under General Abercromby, from whom he was divided by the river Caveri. Here he learned that Tippoo's whole army had encamped between him and Seringapatam, having his right covered by the Caveri, while his left extended along the front of a high mountain, with a deep ravine, the passage of which was defended by batteries; and in which position he had determined to prevent the allies from a nearer approach to his capital. Lord Cornwallis immediately resolved to turn his left flank by a night march, and to cut off the retreat of his main body to the island of Seringapatam:—this expedition was, however, rendered abortive, owing to several tremendous storms of rain, thunder, and lightning, which threw so many obstacles in the way of the marching army, that they did not come up with the enemy till the middle of the following day, when after a smart skirmish, in which a party under Colonel Maxwell drove them from a strong post upon a hill, and captured three pieces of cannon, his Lordship found himself under the necessity of retreating to Bangalore, in consequence of his provisions having become alarmingly scarce. Orders were also sent to General Abercromby, to fall back from Periapatam; and it was intended to give the army a few months' refreshment, when an account was received of the approach of two strong Mahratta armies, under the command of Hurry Punt and Purseram Bhow, on whose arrival it was agreed that all the confederate forces should keep the field.

In the mean time Tippoo, with his accustomed duplicity, had made frequent

attempts to induce the Peishwa and the Nizam to break off their alliance with the British, and enter into separate treaties with him; but his offers being contemptuously rejected, hostilities recommenced in the autumn, and the strong forts of Rymenghur, and Nundy Droog, with very considerable garrisons, were taken by small parties under General Medows and Major Gowdie; while Severndroog, a post with 2000 men, and Outradroog, another strong fortification, surrendered to Colonel Stuart, with scarcely any loss on his side. These successes were followed by the capture of Darampowry, Pinagra and Gurrumcandah; all of which were attended with signal instances of bravery on the part of our troops; when in January, 1792, Tippoo, finding himself reduced to the last extremity, and driven to the very gates of his capital, thought proper to open negotiations for peace; but Lord Cornwallis having learned of a signal instance of treachery on his part, resolved to bring him to a sense of his duplicity, by making a general attack upon his camp. The circumstance was as follows. Lieutenant Chalmers, with a small body of troops, was besieged at Coimbatoor by Kummer ul Dien Khan, and after a brave resistance of 28 days, was obliged to capitulate, by which it was agreed that the garrison should march out with their private property, and be escorted to Paligautcherry; instead of which, after a detention of 13 days at the fort, they were sent prisoners to Seringapatam, by the particular orders of Tippoo.

Hostilities therefore recommenced with much vigour; and Colonel Ross, commander of the Bombay detachment, accompanied by the armies of the Mahratta chiefs already mentioned, defeated Tippoo's army, which was nearly 10,000 strong, at Semoga, on the 29th December, 1791, when they captured 300 horses, 600 bullocks, and 10 pieces of artillery. The negotiations were then renewed; and Lieutenant Chalmers with his party having been sent to the British camp, a preliminary treaty was signed on the 22d of February, 1792, by which one half of the dominions which were in the possession of Tippoo at the commencement of the war was ceded to the allies; and they were remunerated for their expenses by the sum of three crores and thirty lacks of sicca rupees. As a guarantee for the fulfilment of the treaty, Tippoo transmitted to Lord Cornwallis his second and third sons, as hostages; and it is but justice to add, that in this instance all his engagements were scrupulously performed. In this war our loss was on the whole so trifling, when compared with that of the enemy, as to form a subject for the astonishment of all military men.

The districts ceded to the allies by this treaty, were found to be productive of the following annual revenue in pagodas, viz.

	Pagedas.
To the East India Company	13,16,765 5 4½
To the Nawaub Assoph Jah Behauder	13,16,666 6 11
To Row Punditt Perdhaun Behauder	13,16,666 0 0
Total	<u>39,50,908 8 9½</u>

A few years of peace now succeeded; but this blessing was too evanescent to produce much benefit amongst a people destined as it were by nature to be the sport of conflicting tyrants. In 1798, the ambition and treachery of Tippoo again became manifest; he having, as was afterwards ascertained, planned, as long since as 1792, a project for the complete extirpation of the English from India, as well as for the subversion of the Mahrattas and other Hindoo states, who had long regarded his ambitious career with an eye of jealous suspicion. With this view he had engaged the assistance not only of the French, who have always come forward with alacrity whenever they could anticipate an opportunity of injuring the vital interests of the British Empire, but of several of the petty sovereigns who were more immediately under his controul. His projects, however, were most happily defeated by the exertions of Lord Mornington, now Marquis Wellesley, the present Governor General:—and the subsequent events of the war, which are too fresh in the memory of Englishmen to need detail, or scarcely to require repetition, conferred additional glory upon the British arms; while the duplicity of the Sultaun met with its just reward, by the forfeiture not only of his capital but of his life!—Thus the whole kingdom of the Mysore was placed at the disposal of our government; while the lesson it afforded to the native princes, was such as effectually to convince them of the futility of prosecuting schemes engendered by ambition, to subvert that power which we have justly attained, by acting on the mere principle of self-defence, while repelling their various acts of aggression.

The contest was but of short duration. A vigorous attack upon the enemy's capital was immediately resolved upon, and on the 4th of May, 1799, the forces under Major Beatson effected a breach, and commenced an assault upon Seringapatam, when our troops entered that fortress with a degree of ardour which set all their former efforts at defiance. The garrison made a vigorous resistance, with the Sultaun at their head; but they were soon repulsed by our brave army; when the place surrendered to General Harris, and Tippoo's body was shortly afterwards found upon the ramparts, covered with wounds. The whole of his sons, thirteen in number, with his harem and all his sirdars thus became prisoners; and we obtained possession of all the strong holds throughout his dominions. It is also worthy of notice, that a correspondence was found in the palace which Tippoo had carried on with the Nabob of the Carnatic, the object of which was the subversion of the British influence: in consequence of this discovery, our government seized the whole of that Prince's territories; and which the present Nabob holds only through our sufferance.*

* The treasure found in Tippoo's palace appears, from various accounts, to have been immense. The value of the jewels was estimated at seven lacks of pagodas, and the merchandize, consisting of rich muslins, shawls, and cloth, at 500 camels' load. The Sultaun's throne being too unwieldy for conveyance, was broken up. It was a howdar upon a tyger, covered with a sheet of gold, which was found to weigh 40,000 pagodas, while the silver work around it, with the fringe and pearls, were estimated at 10,000 more; the steps were of silver gilt. The canopy was superbly decorated, and of immense value; it was surmounted by a golden bird, with expanded wings: its beak

Our preponderance in India thus became firmly established, and it has been still farther consolidated by the glorious events of the last year, which in point of brilliancy are inferior to none in the annals of British valour. The origin of the war with the Mahrattas is well known to all persons connected with India; but, for the information of the general reader, it will merely be sufficient to state, that for many years a strict alliance had subsisted between our government and the Peishwa, who is the nominal and acknowledged head of the Mahratta states, which are also divided amongst several confederated chiefs, descended from Sevagee, the first monarch and founder of the empire; and as the Peishwa arrived at his dignity not by descent, but from having been prime minister to Sahogee, the third Rajah of Sattarah, who delegated to him all the authority of the state, it was natural to expect that a degree of jealousy would exist towards him on the part of the legitimate descendants of the monarch of the empire, though they acknowledged the power conferred upon him by their ancestor. The principal of these chiefs are Scindia, Holkar, the Guikwar, and the Rajah of Berar. Scindia's family established themselves in Malwa and Candeish, and afterwards made some conquests amongst the Rajpoots. The family of the Guikwar obtained a great part of Guzerat; while that of Holkar settled themselves in such parts of the province of Malwa as did not belong to Scindia and the Peishwa. These chiefs are independent of each other, and all acknowledge the office of the Peishwa.*

In 1789, Lord Cornwallis concluded a treaty with the Peishwa, against Tippoo, which gave offence to Scindia and the Rajah of Berar, particularly as by the treaty of Seringapatam, in 1792, the Peishwa and the Nizam acquired additional territories. They therefore began to infringe upon the possessions of the Peishwa, and in 1799, Dowlut Rao Scindia entered the city of Poonah, the Peishwa's capital, with a large army commanded by French officers, and prevented the Peishwa from affording the stipulated assistance to the British in the war which caused the fall of Seringapatam. Scindia even forced him to carry on a secret correspondence with Tippoo, which being detected, the additional territory intended for the Mahrattas on the conquest of the Mysore, was divided by the Marquis of Wellesley's government, between the Nizam and the British. Hence the Mahrattas became our enemies, while we formed an alliance with the Nizam in 1800, and a subsidiary treaty with the Guikwar in 1802, the object of which was to preclude the union of the Mahratta states.

In the mean time the French omitted no means which could tend to restore their

was a large emerald, the wings were lined with diamonds, and the tail was studded with emeralds and other stones, so as to resemble peacocks' feathers. The amount of cash found in the palace was seventeen lacks of pagodas. There were in it, including some of the wives and ladies of the late Hyder and their attendants, six hundred and fifty females! The number of men under arms at the assault of Seringapatam, was 2494 Europeans, and 1882 natives. Total 4376. The forlorn hope was lead by a Serjeant named Graham, belonging to the light company of the Bombay European regiment, who volunteered his services; he ran forward to examine the breach, and mounting it, gave three cheers; on which he returned to his party, and remounted with them with the colours in his hand. On reaching the rampart he placed the colour staff in it, and was at that instant shot through the head!

* We believe the present Peishwa obtained his appointment through the influence of Scindia.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ANCIENT AND MODERN INDIA.

influence in the peninsula of India, and having a large force under Monsieur Perron, in the neighbourhood of Agra and Delhi, where they held in the most abject state of subjection Shah Alum, the blind and deposed Mogul Emperor, they were prepared to support the interests of Scindia. General Perron succeeded General du Boigne in the command of a strong brigade officered by Frenchmen,* and armed and disciplined according to European tactics.—The artillery of this corps was particularly well served and appointed, Scindia having established an extensive foundery instead of purchasing cast fire-arms, as was the previous practice, from British and Dutch settlements. Scindia was the first of the Mahratta chiefs who formed a corps of infantry, their military force being previously confined to cavalry, and these for the greater part mercenaries, whose attachment to any particular leader was dependant on his success, and the prospect of plunder which he held forth. If one of these men lost his horse in battle he was immediately discharged; and this knowledge restrained the natural impetuosity and enterprise of his nature, to the consequent disadvantage of his employer.

By the communications made to the British Resident at Hyderabad, by the late Nizam, it appeared that the Berar Rajah, who had long been jealous of the growing influence of the British in Hindostan, had for a considerable length of time laboured to undermine its interest, and engage the other powers of India in a confederacy against us. With a view to win the Nizam to his purpose he used both threats and promises, and made such communication of his projects, and of his means for their execution, as enabled the Governor General to counteract and defeat them.

The dissensions amongst these chiefs had consequently at the period in question attained an alarming height, and on the 25th of October, 1802, the Peishwa was expelled from his capital; an action having taken place on the same day between the army of Holkar, and that of Scindia and the Peishwa, in which the latter combined force was totally defeated. In this dilemma all jealousy towards the British subsided amongst the conquered chiefs, who saw that their only chance of salvation rested on that alliance which they had before rejected. The Peishwa therefore conveyed to our government a grant of territory amounting annually to 25 lacks of rupees, for which he received an auxiliary force of six battalions of Sepoys, and a train of artillery: he also expressed his readiness to enter into a strict alliance with our government; and being conveyed in a British ship to a fort called Sevandroog, in the Cokan, he signed the treaty on the 31st of December, 1802.

In consequence of this treaty the British troops immediately advanced into the Mahratta territories, together with the subsidiary force, and a large body of the

* The force under Perron, however, though French, and their commander influenced by the French government, was not an independant body, but in the pay and under the orders of Scindia:—this force was the object of extreme jealousy to the British Government; but by the treaties it has since imposed on the native princes, they are not at liberty to retain in their service any foreigner whatsoever without the express permission of the British Resident.

Nizam's cavalry; the whole of which arrived at Poonah in the middle of April, 1803, under the command of Major General Wellesley, he having received information that Amrut Rao, who had been placed on the musnud of Poonah by Holkar, meant to plunder and burn the city, having ascertained the impossibility of keeping possession of it. The Major General however arrived in time to prevent this outrage, and was hailed by the people as their deliverer. The Peishwa was then reinstated, and a proposition was made to Scindia to admit him a party in the alliance; but the Governor General having ascertained that from the moment of the restoration of the Peishwa, he had been privately attempting to form a confederacy with Holkar, and the Rajah of Berar, to usurp the government of Poonah, directions were sent to General Lake at Cawnpore to assemble his army on the north-west frontier of the Company's dominions, in order to counteract the intentions of Scindia and the Rajah, which had been fully proved to be hostile to the Company, by the intercepting of a correspondence between Scindia and Perron, ordering the latter to prepare for a rupture with the English. It should be observed, that before the commencement of hostilities, every attempt had been made on the part of our government to effect an accommodation; and it was not till Colonel Collins (who was sent for this purpose to Scindia's camp) had received the most striking proofs of the duplicity of that chief, that the Marquis resolved on hostilities.

These were the primary causes of the war:—its consequences are doubtless still so fresh in the memory of our readers as scarcely to need any repetition. The object of the army under Major General Wellesley was to oppose the force of Scindia and the Raja, and thus not only to establish the governments of the Guikwar, of Poonah, and of Hyderabad, but to secure the Company's territory in the Mysore and the Deccan, and to protect the persons of the Nizam and the Peishwa; while that of General Lake was to oppose Perron's forces on the banks of the Jumna, to restore Shah Alum, the deposed Mogul, and to extend the British possessions, by the annexation of Bundelcund, which would give additional security to Benares, while it might check the operations of the Berar Rajah.

The plan which had been laid down by the confederates for the prosecution of the war, but which was deranged by the defection of Holkar, was to harass our troops by the rapidity of their movements, to cut off our supplies, to annoy us by ambuscades, and exhaust us by the constant appearance of opposition, but on no account to engage in a general action. The impatience however of Scindia, and the confidence he felt in the vast superiority of his numbers, seduced him from this prudent system, in opposition to the advice of the Bhounsla, or Rajah of Berar, and involved him in the complete defeat at Assaye, which will be subsequently mentioned. His position on that occasion was inconceivably strong by nature, and defended by upwards of one hundred pieces of cannon admirably served:—the army under his command comprised 60,000 cavalry, 11 battalions of infantry, 5000 artillery, and 5000 Arabs, making an effective force of

79,000 men, to this was opposed twelve hundred and fifty European, and about six thousand native troops, namely :

5 Companies of the 74th Regiment,	- - -	450 men.
78th ditto	- - -	300
19th Light Dragoons,	- - -	500
	Total Europeans	<u>1250</u>

The 4th, 5th, and 27th regiments of native cavalry, 1st, 8th, 10th, and 12th regiments of native infantry, single battalions.

Perron, in recompense for his services, and for the pay of his brigade, was invested with the sovereignty of a luxuriant and populous tract between the Jumna and the Ganges. The country has since been annexed to the British dominions, but the immense wealth which Perron derived from it has been secured to him.

It would be an act of injustice to the officers entrusted with the important expeditions projected by the British government in India, not to observe, that to their judgment, bravery, and incessant activity, the unexampled success of the campaign is to be in a great measure attributed. The skill and exertions, in short, were such as to astonish even those who are most intimately acquainted with Indian affairs.

The amount of the forces of the confederates in the month of July, 1803, near the Adjunctee Ghaut, was 38,500 cavalry, 10,500 infantry, and 1000 matchlock and rocket men ; while those under Perron, in the northern provinces, consisted of about 17,000 infantry, and at least 15,000 cavalry ;—total 82,000 men. The army under General Lake consisted of 10,500 men, amongst which there was not more than four or five regiments of Europeans, including infantry, cavalry and artillery ; and about 5500 men who were stationed near Allahabad and Mirzapoore ; while the troops under General Wellesley in the Deccan amounted to 16,823, exclusive of a detachment of the 84th regiment at Poonah, and about 1000 Sepoys. General Stuart at Moodgul had also a force of 7826 men, with which he afterwards proceeded to Hyderabad.

Thus the enemy had an army nearly double in number to that by which they were opposed, and possessing every local advantage ; nevertheless their combined forces were defeated in every direction.

On the 8th of August Major General Wellesley commenced his operations by an attack on the fortress of Amednaghur, which capitulated on the 12th, with all the districts dependent on it, and which yielded an annual revenue of 6,34,000 rupees. Scindia had in the mean time entered the territories of the Nizam, who died on the 6th of August, and being pursued by the Major General, a decisive action was fought near Assaye, on the 23d September, in which the enemy was totally routed. The General throughout displayed the greatest bravery, and led in person the 78th regiment to seize the enemy's artillery, in which he had a horse shot under him.

On the 16th of October the city of Boorhanpoor surrendered to Colonel Stevenson, as did the important fort of Asseerghur on the 21st ; and on the same day Lieutenant

Colonel Woodington gained possession of the western face of the fort of Baroach in Guzerat. The whole of the fort was taken by storm on the 29th, on which day General Lake, at a distance of 600 miles, defeated at Coel the forces under Perron. In Cuttack a body of troops under Lieutenant Colonel Harcourt proved equally successful, driving the Mahrattas from all their strong places in every direction.

On the 4th of September General Lake took by storm the strong fort of Ally Ghur, after a vigorous resistance, in which we sustained considerable loss. The attack was led by Lieutenant Colonel Monson. This place was the grand depot of Perron ; and besides the stores and ordnance, a considerable sum of money was found in it. The most remarkable effect of this capture was that it induced Perron, who, as has been already observed, had long maintained the rank of a sovereign in the country, to resign the service of Scindia, and solicit the protection of the British government, by whom he was received with the greatest respect, and still remains under their protection. It should be added, that he possessed so mean an opinion of the stability of his Indian employer, and of the justice of his own government, that he had long before this event, placed all his immense property under the security of the British funds.

The progress of General Lake was now an uninterrupted career of victory : on the 11th he totally defeated the enemy at Delhi ; and after placing the unfortunate Mogul, Shah Alum, under British protection, pursued the fugitive armies towards Agra, where he formed a junction with Colonel Vandeleur's detachment ; and captured the fort. At Laswarree on the 1st of November, the British army came up with the enemy, and charged them with their cavalry, in which Colonel Vandeleur was killed : and in the course of that day a general engagement also took place between the same armies near the village of Mohaulpoor, which terminating in a splendid victory by our forces, completed the subversion of the hostile confederates, and procured for Great Britain and her allies the most substantial and advantageous treaties.* In this affair the enemy lost about 2000 men, and had an equal number taken prisoners. Our loss was likewise considerable.

* The Treaty with the Rajah of Berar was signed on the 17th of December, in the camp at Deogoun. It consists of fifteen articles, by which it is agreed that there shall be perpetual peace and friendship between the India Company and the Rajah, in consequence of which the latter agrees to cede to the former, in perpetual sovereignty, the province of Cuttack, including the port and district of Balasore ; all the territories of which he has collected the revenues jointly with the Soubah of the Deccan, and those of which he may have possession which are to the westward of the river Wurdā ; the frontier of the Rajah towards the territories of the Soubah of the Deccan shall be formed to the west by the river Wurda, from its issue from the Injardy Hills to its junction with the river Godavery. The hills on which the forts of Nernallah and Gawelghur stand, are to remain in possession of the Rajah, and all places to the southward of those hills, and to the west of the westward of the river Wurda, to be given up to the British government.—Districts amounting to four lacs of rupees per annum, contiguous to and to the southward of the abovementioned forts, are to be given up to the Rajah.

The Rajah also entirely renounces all claims on the territories of the British government, ceded as above, and upon all the territories of the Soubah of the Deccan ; and engages never to take or retain in his service any Frenchman, or the subjects of any other European or American power, that may be at war with the British government.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ANCIENT AND MODERN INDIA.

Hence, by their successes against the coalesced native and European forces, the British have acquired an ascendancy in India, of which nothing but an extraordinary want of policy can ever deprive them; while they have taught the natives the salutary lesson, that any future attempt to injure the interests of a nation which may justly be considered as invincible, cannot but terminate in their destruction.

From the various official papers, it appears that between the 8th of August and the 2d of November, the British army had conquered all the possessions of Scindia in Guzerat, with Boorhanpoor, Cuttack, the Mahratta territories between the Jumna and the Ganges; the cities of Delhi, Agra, and the surrounding country; the fortified town of Ahmednagur; the fort of Ally Ghur,* Baroach, Cuttack, Ahmednaghur,+ Powanghur, Champooner, Asseerghur called the key of the Deccan, and Agra the key of Hindostan. It also gained three general engagements at Delhi, Assaye, and Laswarree, in which were taken the total number of 268 pieces of artillery, 5000 stand of arms, 215 tumbrils, 51 stand of colours, and an immense quantity of stores and ammunition.

or any British subject, either European or native, without the consent of the Company. The Company on their part, agree not to assist any discontented or rebellious relations of the Rajah, who, in consequence, renounces all adherence to the confederacy formed by him and Scindia.

The treaty with Scindia was signed on the 30th of December, and consists of sixteen articles. By these Scindia cedes to the Company, in perpetual sovereignty, all his forts, territories, and rights in the Douab, and country situated between the Jumna and the Ganges, and all his forts and interests in the countries to the northward of the Rajah of Jeypoor and Joodepoor, and of the Rajah of Gohud; retaining for himself the countries between Jeypoor and Joodepoor, and to the south of the former. He likewise cedes the fort of Baroach and the territory depending thereon, the fort of Amednaghur and its territory, and all the territories which belonged to him previous to the war, which are situated to the southward of the Adjantee Hills, including the fort and districts of Jalnapoor, the town and district of Gadnapoor, and all other districts between that range of hills and the river Godavery; and he renounces all claims on the British government and their allies.

Various accounts have been received, which state the revenue that will arise from these treaties to be so considerable as almost to exceed credibility. The most moderate opinion is that the amount will not be less than 2,000,000 pagodas.

* The ordnance found in the fort of Ally Ghur, on the 4th of September, amounted to 33 brass and 60 iron guns, four brass howitzers, two brass mortars, and 182 iron wall pieces. The following is the return of the ordnance captured opposite Delhi on the 11th of September:

Two brass 20-pounders; five ditto 18-pounder caronnades; three ditto 16-pounder ditto; three iron 12-pounders (French); 14 brass 6-pounders; one iron 6-pounder; 23 brass 4-pounders; five ditto 3-pounders; four iron 3 pounds; one brass 8-inch mortar; one ditto 8-inch howitzer; four ditto 6-inch howitzers; two ditto 4 ditto; 68 pieces of cannon of different nature: the whole mounted on field carriages, with limbers and traces complete.—57 tumbrils complete, laden with ammunition; 24 ditto blown up in the field of battle; 61 tumbrils complete, laden with ammunition. The whole of this artillery played on our forces as they advanced; and except two pieces, it is all found serviceable. Some of them are of the latest French improvement, and have the double property of acting as mortars and howitzers.

+ The treasure found in Amednaghur is stated to have been very considerable, and it is supposed much more remained concealed in the fort. The contingent of the Nizam will share prize-money in proportion to the number of his regular troops in the field.

Since the general pacification, it appears that hostilities have been renewed by Holkar. General Wellesley had in consequence set off for Poonah on the 17th of May, to take the command of the forces, and Colonel Murray, who was stationed in Guzerat, had received orders to join him with a considerable body of troops on Holkar's frontiers. Nothing official has yet transpired; though private accounts, as late as the 27th of May, mention the capture of a strong town of the enemy called Rampoorah, by Lieutenant Colonel Dunn, and a small body of Sepoys. At that period Holkar evidently was not subdued, though it does not require any very intimate knowledge of Indian affairs to anticipate the result of the contest.

The war however, with Holkar, furnishes a strong illustration of the indecision and fluctuation of Asiatic politics. In the late war he preserved an armed neutrality; in the early progress of it he was negotiating with the British government to join it with a subsidiary force of 40,000 men, and this force was for some time held at our disposal, until the rapid and victorious events of that short campaign rendered us superior to the occasion under which his service had been courted. Holkar profiting by the weakness of Scindia, occupied some of his territory, and instead of a moiety of the revenues of other districts tributary to them both, exacted by military contribution the entire sum. The British government, with equal policy and humanity, declined to advantage itself to the full extent that its victories over Scindia and the Berar Rajah might have warranted, obviously with a view to preserve an equalizing although dependent power in the Mahratta empire; it accordingly guaranteed to Scindia certain of his possessions, granted a subsidiary force of 6000 men, as well to defend as to overawe him, and agreed to the offensive and defensive treaty, under virtue of which it is now engaged in the war which Holkar has commenced against him. Holkar is undoubtedly a man of superior talent and resources; he is brave and enterprising, temperate and decisive; he is, however, greatly deficient in the main sources of Mahratta warfare, money—and his attention is constantly distracted by the jealousy and dissensions of his family. Four of the five great divisions into which the Mahratta empire is separated, viz. the Peishwa, the Guikwar, the Rajah of Berar, and Scindia, are in hostility to him; most of the Rajpoots, influenced either by personal hatred, or the imposing attitude of this confederacy, have declared against him; the new Nizam is engaged in the war by both these considerations, and the British are urged by policy and interest to humble the refractory chief to that state of dependance to which the other powers of Hindostan are reduced.

December, 1804.

THE END.

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VIEWS

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HINDOSTAN,

Drawn by William Orme

From the Original Pictures

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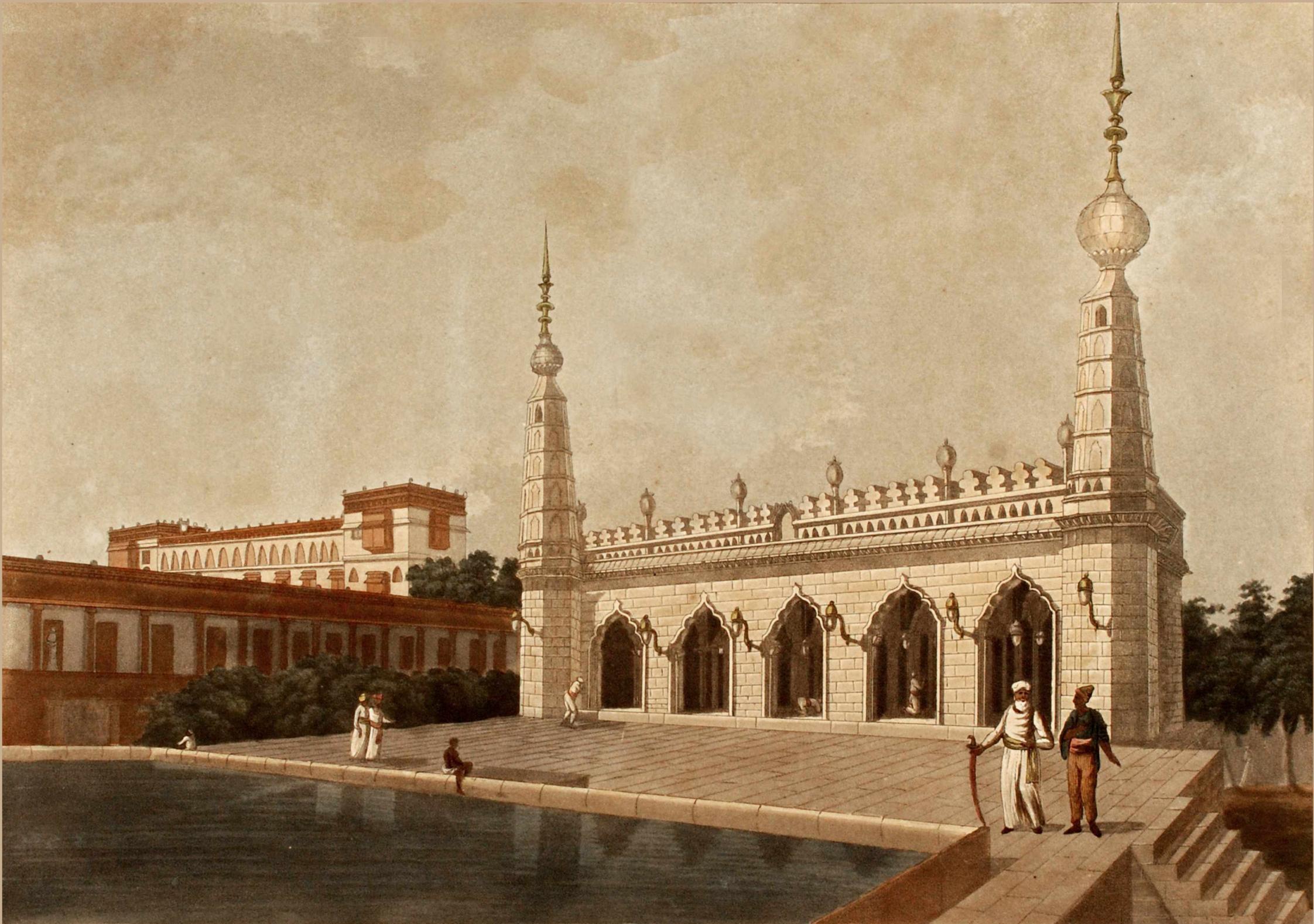
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To whom this Work is, with Permission,
respectfully Dedicated
by his much obliged humble ServantEdw^r. Orme

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J. C. Stadler Aquatint

A HINDOO PLACE OF WORSHIP.



DALMOW, ON THE GANGES.

Published & Sold July 10 1804 by Edm^d Orme His Majesty's Printer to New Bond Street London



Edw^r Orme Execdta
FORTRESS of GWALLIOR, taken by General Popham in 1780.

Sold & Published June 4 1802 by Edw^r Orme His Majesty's Printer 59 New Bond Street London



THE OLD COURT HOUSE, CALCUTTA.

Published & Sold, Jan'r 1st 1805, by Edw^o Orme, Printeller to His Majesty, Bond Street, London.



THE BRIDGE AT JUONPORE, BENGAL.

Sold & Published July 22 1804 by Edw^d Orme His Majesty's Printer 59 New Bond Street London



DISTANT VIEW OF MOOTEE THURNA, A WATERFALL IN THE RAJMAHL HILLS, BENGAL

Printed & Published June 1802 by Edw: Orme Printseller in Ordinary to the King, & Royal Family, No: 9 the Corner of Brook Street, in Bond Street London.



MULTURA FORT.

Published & Sold Jan'y 1803 by Edw. Orme, Printseller to His Majesty & the Royal Family, 59 New Bond St. London



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THE BURIAL PLACE OF A PEER ZADA, ANOPHER.

Published & Sold Janst 1803, by Edw^d Orme, Printeller to His Majesty & the Royal Family, 59 New Bond St^r London.



FELICITY HALL, LATE THE RESIDENCE OF THE HON^{BLE}. DAVID ANSTRUTHER,
YEAR MOORSHEDABAD, BENGAL.

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A P P E N D I X,

CONTAINING DESCRIPTIONS OF THE

T W E N T Y-F O U R V I E W S

I N

H I N D O S T A N,

FROM

MR. CHASE'S CELEBRATED COLLECTION OF PICTURES,

PAINTED BY

MR. DANIELL AND COLONEL WARD.

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No. I. THE PALACE, &c. OF THE NABOB OF ARCOT,

At Trichinopoly.

THE foreground of this view is enriched by a superb tomb, built over the body of a late Nabob of Arcot; it is endowed, and service is daily performed in it: the tank, or pond of water, nearer towards the eye, is for the purpose of ablution, a religious ceremony of absolute necessity amongst the natives before they go to their devotion. The range of buildings which occupies the left side of the view is the palace of the Nabob.

The last Nabob, Omdut ul Omra, died on July 15, 1801, and was succeeded by his reputed son Hussein Ally. A commotion was expected at his death, by the pretensions of Tippoo Padshaw, fourth son of the late Mahammed Ally; but by the judicious arrangements of Marquis Wellesley, who sent troops to the palace of Chepauk, which contained the heir, tranquillity was preserved.

The British Company, of course, are the avowed protectors of the Nabob: the magnificent palace which is his present residence was built at their expense, and he continues to enjoy all the privileges of monarchy in perfect security. He takes much pride, as did his predecessor, in appearing at Madras in an English equipage, a novel luxury in an Asiatic prince, and which splenetic observers, particularly foreigners, do not hesitate to say he has purchased at the expense of his crown.

No. II. A VIEW FROM THE KING'S BARRACKS, FORT ST. GEORGE, MADRAS.

THIS view in Fort St. George, shews in the foreground, on the left hand side, the west face of the King's Barracks; the low buildings, or sheds, on each side the gateway are appropriated for places of confinement for the disorderly part of the soldiery, and for the residence of the serjeant-major and quarter-master serjeants. A small part of the kitchen belonging to the barracks appears rising between the two buildings. The cupola at the end of the barracks belongs to Fort Square. It had once an excellent clock, which was of great service to the Settlement, but it has long since been taken down. The tower of the Church is seen beyond it, and the chimnies of the Fort Square kitchen on one side of it.

The nearest trees shade a long range of buildings, called the Company's Barracks, and at the end of these is the avenue, on the other side of which projects the Admiralty House; at back of this is an avenue of trees, where the street leading to the arsenal commences. Opposite to the trees in question is the house of Mr. Cotsford, and beneath it that of Mrs. Turing, who by the intermarriages of her family and relatives, became connected with half the Settlement. The road between the enclosures, where the Seapoy sentinel is observable, leads to the St. George's, or West Gate.

In the year 1769, Monsieur Lally with a large French army attacked this Fort, and was nobly repulsed by the late Lord Pigot. The particulars of this event are given in detail in Orme's History of India.

The fortress in which the barracks are situated is separated from the town by an esplanade outside the glacis: it stands on the sea shore, and presents six fronts to the land. In its construction it is not very regular, as nearly all the fronts are different from each other. That towards the north-east is on the Italian model of Sardi; while its opposite, on the south-west, is on the plan of the Chevalier de Ville. Some of the bastions are casemated, and the ditches are excellent, with a cunette in the middle. All the works are well faced with brick, and in complete repair; the depots of arms are spacious, and the citadel, with a good garrison, is supposed capable of holding out against an army of 30,000 Europeans for 20 days after the trenches are opened. The fortress is intended, in case of siege, for the retreat of all the servants of the Company, and is consequently so full of houses, that the English do not reside in it, but live in the vicinity, where there is an abundance of beautiful buildings and gardens.

No. III. A VIEW OF PART OF ST. THOMÉ STREET, FORT ST. GEORGE.

IN the foreground, on the right hand, is the south-east angle of Fort Square, which is separated from the church; the next object in succession is a street, in which is seen a horse with his keeper. The locality of this view does not require, nor will it admit of any farther elucidation. It affords a good specimen of the modern style of British architecture in India.

No. IV. A VIEW IN THE NORTH STREET OF FORT ST. GEORGE.

THIS street is terminated by the north gate, which opens to the beach and black tower. The extreme building in the foreground, on the left, is a part of Portuguese Square, which is inhabited by the civil servants of the Company. Near to it is seated a man playing upon a pipe, which in tone resembles a bagpipe, and a snake is seen in the act of approaching him. This man, and his companion on his left hand, are of the description of people who gain a precarious livelihood by playing various tricks with reptiles, and catching them occasionally in gentlemen's gardens. A detailed description is given of them in the Costume of India.

Opposite to them, as spectators, are a debast, and cooley boy, and at some distance on the other side is a cooley with a load upon his back; the costume of which is correctly preserved.

N. B. The termination of the perspective is not a house, but part of a ravelin.

No. V. A VIEW OF FORT SQUARE, FORT ST. GEORGE,

From the South Side of the Parade.

THIS View includes the Parade of Fort St. George. The building on the right hand represents the west face of Fort Square, which was the only fortification, and almost the only territory, possessed by the Company at Madras in the year 1750. The present fortress is indeed impregnable to the Indians; but a view of the old fort will give a convincing idea of the febleness of the first establishments of the English on the coast, while it shews from what slender beginnings we have risen to our present greatness. The old fort was a square building, which now stands in the middle of the modern fortifications, and in point of size is not equal to the present depot of arms. It has been converted into a house, in which are established the different offices of the Company. Amongst the latest buildings are an English Protestant Church and an elegant Exchange. In short, Madras is now justly celebrated for the sumptuousness of its public establishments. The posts for the conveyance of letters are well regulated; and it contains two newspapers, a national lottery, a theatre, and a ball-room.

Apparently adjoining to Fort Square, although in fact divided from it by a broad street, is the south face of Portuguese Square, formerly a Portuguese church, and containing the dwellings of the Catholic priests attached to it. The building rising above it was for many years the Court-house, in which civil and criminal prosecutions were carried on. On the left-hand side are the King's Barracks, originally built for the reception of the King's troops. At the extremity was a gateway, but it has long been disused and blocked up. On the foreground, and close to the wall of Fort Square, is a hawker or native pedlar, sitting on the ground and leaning on his wares, which are tied up in a cloth, the usual way of carrying them by those whose stock is small. At a distance from him is a fly palankeen, a mode of conveyance now unknown at Madras, where the close palankeen alone is used.

No. VI. A VIEW WITHIN THE WALLS OF A PAGODA.

THIS View exhibits the buildings in the interior of the walls of a pagoda. The large pile on the right, to which the figure of a Brahmun is pointing up, is the gateway or entrance into the Pagoda. The two figures walking together are also priests of the Hindoos. The building in which the female appears to be talking to a pilgrim, is a choultry,* a convenient and cool retreat for travellers, strangers, and the neighbours, and in which, at particular periods, religious ceremonies are performed. The adjoining building, which runs off in more distant perspective, is appropriated for the residence of the Brahmuns.

Some of these edifices, as for example that which forms the subject of the present View, are very considerable, and cover a vast extent of ground; but they are indebted in a great degree for the grandeur of their appearance to the adjacent buildings, the towers constructed over the gates, and the surrounding objects in the courts. The pagoda itself is a small edifice, not capable of containing more than a hundred persons. It is generally situated in the middle of the court; the idol is placed on a small pedestal ornamented with flowers, and to this the people pay their veneration. Before the image they burn a quantity of oil of cocoa, in a great number of small lamps; and the presents to it consist of offerings of fruits, milk, grain, oil, and flowers; at each presentation or offering, a number of little bells are rung, which are fastened to a machine

* For an account of the Choultries see the description of Plate VIII.

of wood in the form of a triangle, and the noise of which being agreeable to the multitude, they infer that it cannot fail to be pleasing to the God. The music of the bells is considered as a favour, and whoever has deserved it by the present which he may have made, is obliged to pay a sum of money for the entertainment he has received, which compensation is appropriated to the benefit of the Brahmuns.

Sonnerat has written on this interesting subject much in detail, and with such accuracy that several gentlemen lately returned from India declare that they have verified his accounts with his book in their hands.

No. VII. SOUTH-EAST VIEW OF THE ROCK OF TRITCHINOPOLY.*

204 Miles from Madras,

TAKEN within the walls of the fort. It is ascended by serpentine steps that have many spacious landing places, which turn off to excavations of considerable magnitude, some of which are used as powder magazines, and others, with the assistance of masonry, are converted into pagodas. On the summit is an extensive choultry, or open colonnade, which commands a prospect of twenty or thirty miles. The building near it and which abrupts upon the edge of the rock, is a pagoda, with the residence of the Brahmuns belonging to it. The interior of the buildings is, in the order of their construction, grand and sublime, and has frequently attracted the admiration of scientific men.

No. VIII. A CHOULTRY,

Carved out of the Rock of Tritchinopoly.

THIS curious temple is excavated from the massy rock, and contains some masterly workmanship by the Hindoos. The pillar in the centre is of solid brass, gilt, and about fifty feet high: it supports at the top various flags, which are used as signals for prayers, and may be seen (on account of the height of the rock) at a distance of thirty miles over the surrounding country.

The small white building in the centre of the picture is composed of silver, and contains the most adored gods of the Hindoos. At the entrance of this chamber are the remains of an antique bull, sculptured from granite. The man who is seen standing near the pillar of brass is a Brahmun. No European or inferior cast of the Hindoos is permitted to enter the temple; for it is held in such veneration by the Maharattas, that if any person of the above description were, at the present day, to attempt to enter the inner apartment or sanctum sanctorum, the Brahmun would immediately murder him.

With respect to the origin of choultries,† they seem to have had their rise in the hospitality of the natives, blended with that religious awe which forms the most striking and laudable trait in their character. They consider a person upon a journey as a sacred object, and the primary intent of the choultries is to supply his wants. They are nearly similar to the caravansaries of Egypt and Arabia; and travellers may enter them, rest, dress their provisions, and retire, without any demand being made upon them; and though it would be more gratifying if food were provided for them, yet the accommodation of shelter in a climate where the heat is almost insupportable, is, it must be allowed, of no ordinary kind.

The Choultries, like other Indian edifices, often vary in size and convenience; but in general they are large and commodious, and each of them is attended by a man, who is occupied in keeping them clean. The first traveller who arrives takes possession of the place as if it were his own; and on the appearance of another the former makes room for him; and so on till the choultry is full. On reaching one of these retreats in the evening, each traveller lies down to sleep; the Indians mix together indiscriminately, but if an European be present, they politely leave him a corner to himself. These buildings are found near almost every village, but being situated out of the main road, they are not frequented by the majority of travellers, particularly Europeans, who prefer stopping at any public house in the towns, &c. where they can procure accommodation by purchase.

Amongst the opulent natives the building of these edifices is considered as an atonement for sins; and a man loaded with crimes, and who may have acquired his riches by the most illicit means, is convinced that he shall enjoy eternal felicity, if he have erected two or three choultries.

* Tritchinopoly is in the territory of his Highness the Nabob of the Carnatic.

† It is necessary to observe that the term Choultry is frequently applied without discrimination, to the temples for the worship of the idols, and to the buildings adapted to the accommodation of travellers; though, as we have observed in the description of Plate VI. religious ceremonies are occasionally performed in the latter.

No. IX. A VIEW OF OSSOORE.

THIS View of Ossoore was taken from an adjacent hill. At the time Mr. Daniell made the drawing there was an encampment, which is represented in the distance; it consisted of a detachment from Lord Cornwallis's army, commanded by Major Woodburne of Madras.

The fort was taken from Tippoo Sultan in 1792, and in it were found several pieces of brass ordnance.

In the foreground to the right is the entrance to a pagoda, which, like the choultries, afford cool and comfortable retreats for sun-burnt travellers.

No. X. THE BET MOUNTAINS.

THIS View cannot fail to excite a considerable degree of interest, as it exhibits an accurate representation of some of the most extraordinary irregularities on the face of the globe. In the distance of the perspective are seen vast mountains of ice, which from their great elevation remain in the same state throughout the year. In the foreground, on the right, is a Hindoo temple, formed of large stones: it is evidently the rude work of nature, but is held in great veneration by the inhabitants, particularly the Brahmuns, who relate traditions of it from time immemorial. It is something of the same nature as Stone-henge, near Salisbury.

The Thebet Mountains are the most considerable chain in Asia; they present such a vast and formidable barrier, that the most insensible traveller cannot behold them without awe and admiration. Some of the elevations, as the Oonkoo, are covered with delightful fruit trees even to their summits, while others exhibit nothing but flinty stone, striated with talc, and intermixed with marble. Captain Turner, who, in 1783, passed these curious productions of nature on his embassy to the Teeshoo Lama, observed that the summits of the mountains of Kepta and Loomela, the highest he had till then met with, were covered with deep snow on the 27th of May, though the villages and hermitages which overspread their sides contained spacious orchards, abounding with apples, pears, peaches, and apricots. "At every pause," says this gentleman, "we beheld a different prospect, each of which might justly be reckoned amongst the grandest and most awful in nature. Cascades of water issuing from the bosoms of lofty mountains, clothed with noble trees, and hiding their heads in the clouds; abrupt precipices, deep dells, and the river dashing its waters with astonishing rapidity over the huge stones and broken rocks below, composed the sublime and variegated picture."

At first sight Thebet appears to a traveller as one of the least favoured countries in the world, as it seems to be in a great measure incapable of cultivation, and its hills at a short distance present the most stern and stubborn aspect. Their climate is bleak in the extreme, and in certain times of the year it obliges the inhabitants to seek shelter in the valleys and hollows; but this disadvantage is set off by the multitudinous flocks and invaluable mines supported on and contained in this region. The abundance of all kinds of game which depasture on the mountains is truly astonishing. In many of the plains are seen immense masses of rock, which have been split from the gigantic precipices by frost.

On the whole, it is much to be regretted that the important kingdom of Thebet is so little known to Europeans, as it would afford innumerable advantages, in a commercial view, to this country. In 1792 the Company dispatched a body of troops under Capt. Kirkpatrick to assist the Rajah of Nepal, who had implored our aid against the Chinese, by whom the Nepalese had been attacked, on account of their predatory attempts on Teeshoo Loomboo, the capital of the Lama. The advance, however, of the British troops excited the suspicious character of the Chinese, who stationed a strong guard on the northern frontier of Bootan, and precluded all intercourse between the Company's possessions and the territory of the Lama in Thebet.

No. XI. WEST GATE OF FIROZ SHAH'S COTILLAH.

THIS View represents the West Gate of Firoz Shah's residence at Delhi; it is of very remote antiquity, and conveys to the spectator a grand idea of the Hindoo knowledge of architecture at that distant period. It also contains evidently much of the Gothic order, the origin of which is so strongly disputed at the present day.

In this vicinity is the structure called the Pillar of Firoz Shah, containing several ancient inscriptions in unknown characters, and some in the Sanscrit language, which have been translated. The passages which are understood are poetical eulogies on the wisdom of the Shah.

No. XII. A VAKEEL'S CASTLE.

THIS is a strongly built castle and fort, situated at Anchshur, in the province of Bengal. It is, we should think, well calculated to excite reflections on the fragility of that system of government so general in the East, which exists but by despotic sway, and where the numerous petty native chiefs all assume, in the sumptuousness of their edifices and the tyranny of their conduct, that excess of opulence, and austerity of manners, which increase in proportion to the impoverishment and degradation of the unfortunate populace.

No. XIII. A PAGODA.

NOTHING more frequently attracts the attention of travellers and residents in India than the pagodas, which are to be met with in every quarter of that immense territory. They are generally constructed on the same principle, and intended for the same purpose, namely, temples for the worship of heathen gods; some, however, are built in the most superb style of eastern architecture, while others are rudely hewn out of a solid stone, or rock.

The praise-worthy labours of the Society for obtaining information on every subject relative to the Eastern nations, have thrown much light on the nature, state, and use of these monuments. Mr. Chambers has given a paper in the " Asiatic Researches" concerning the monuments, &c. at Mavalipuram, a few miles north of Madras, and known by the name of the *Seven Pagodas*. He conceives that the pagodas themselves, which existed there in former ages, have long been demolished, but the summits of the rock, when viewed from the sea, have the appearance of such buildings. He however found at the foot of a hill, a pagoda of one solid stone, about 18 feet high, which seemed to have been cut upon the spot out of a rock. The architecture of the temple in question was different from that of the pagodas in general, and a numerous group of human figures were found near it, considerably larger than life. He also mentions several other interesting discoveries of a similar nature, which he made in the same neighbourhood, but which, as they are too detailed, and have no immediate relation to the present plate, we shall decline quoting. Some farther particulars on this subject will likewise be found in that excellent work, the Asiatic Researches, communicated by Captain Mackenzie, and by J. Goldingham, Esq. The former describes the pagoda of Perwuttum, hitherto unknown to Europeans, which is situated on the south bank of the Kistnah, in an almost uninhabited country. He visited it in 1794, and his account, which is highly curious, and perhaps unknown to the majority of English readers, is given in detail in the 5th volume of Asiatic Researches, 8vo. edition. It appears that the principal temple is dedicated to the god Mallecarjee, and is frequented by vast numbers of Brahmuns and other devotees, amongst whom Capt. M. particularly noticed one called Byraggy, who had taken up his perpetual residence there, and whose only sustenance was the milk of a cow.

The impositions of the Brahmuns here, and at most other places of a similar nature, cannot fail to have a great effect upon the minds of their superstitious adherents. At the pagoda in question, the rays of the sun were reflected into the inner chamber by a concave mirror from without. The god was thus occasionally discovered in the gloomy recess, and appeared to be nothing more than an oblong white stone, fixed in a silver case. Mallecarjee is probably the same as Lingam, to whom such reverence is paid by certain casts of the Gentoos.

The pagodas, choultries, and all other species of Indian temples, are generally enclosed in vast courts, surrounded by ancient walls; those at Perwuttum were circumscribed by a wall 660 feet long and 510 broad. M. de Grandpré, a late traveller in India, mentions one at Datcharoon, the wall of which is so old that it has three times undergone a thorough repair; and though it has now fallen to ruin, the difference of the masonry or brick-work is strikingly evident. But the most remarkable circumstance relative to this monument is, that the architecture is visibly Greek; and it would be no small difficulty to account for the appearance of a piece of Greek architecture where no other trace of it is to be found, except in the European establishments which are comparatively modern. The pagodas at Chalamburum and Jagernaut, which pass for antiquities, are both constructed in the Malabar taste; yet the Moors at Datcharoon have the highest idea of the antiquity of their edifice.

On the whole it is evident, that farther researches as to the origin, &c. of pagodas would prove of the greatest utility to the future historian, as they would tend to give a correct view of the various modes of superstitious worship, corrupted by tradition, and practised for ages by men who had no light to direct them but that of reason.

No. XIV. A HINDOO PLACE OF WORSHIP.

THE large pillar in the centre is erected in honour of the god they worship. The Brahmun standing by it with a wand in his hand, is fanning a composition of rice, made into flowers and various ornaments.

There is no trait in the religion of the Brahmuns so striking as its mysteriousness and obscurity, unless it be the aversion of its professors to the making of proselytes. They use no artifices for this purpose; but observe that heaven is a place provided with a number of gates; and every man is at liberty to enter it his own way. They maintain the idea of their superiority over every other cast, by incessantly inculcating in the minds of their progeny that they were born to command other men.

In all the Hindoo places of worship the image of a cow is observable, which is placed on a large pedestal in the middle of the court. The Indians pay particular devotion to this goddess, whom they consider as the emblem of wisdom; they consequently hold this animal in such veneration as to employ its excrement in a variety of ways.

No. XV. DALMOW, ON THE GANGES.

THIS is the end View of one of those strong hill forts peculiar to Hindostan; it is situated on the river Ganges, and commands a most luxuriant prospect. There are a great number of these kind of fortifications in the territories which formerly belonged to Tippoo Sultaun, as well as in the Mahratta Districts; and during the late wars an action scarcely ever occurred without the necessity of our troops dislodging the enemy from some of them, which they generally did by escalading and the bayonet.

At the foot of the rock is an Indian village shaded by a row of tamarind trees.

No. XVI. THE FORTRESS OF GWALLIOR.

GWALLIOR is undoubtedly one of the most ancient, important, and astonishing fortifications in India, as it must have been a military post from the earliest ages. It is situated in the centre of Hindostan, being about 80 miles to the south of Agra, and 130 from the nearest part of the Ganges; by the nearest rout from Calcutta its distance is about 800 miles, and about 280 from the British frontiers.

In the detailed histories of India it is mentioned as the capital of a district which formerly produced a considerable revenue; and some circumstances relative to it are stated to have occurred as early as the year 1008. In the two succeeding centuries it appears to have been three times reduced by famine; as the peculiarity of its scite always rendered it impregnable against the assailants of the earlier ages. Its situation is of considerable importance in a military view, as it stands on the principal road leading from Agra to Malwa, Guzerat, and the Deccan, and near the spot where the road enters the hilly tract which advances from Bundelcund, &c. Its possession was always deemed necessary by the ruling Emperors of Hindostan, and its palace was used as a state prison from A. D. 1317 till the fall of the empire.

Amidst the vicissitudes which have taken place in India, this fortress has of course fallen into the possession of various masters. On the dismemberment of the empire it fell to a Rajah of the Jauts, who assumed the government of the district under the title of Rana of Gohud. In 1780 it was in the possession of the Mahratta chief Madajee Scindia, and at that time our government being in alliance with the Rana, whose district was overrun by the Mahrattas, it became an object of importance to draw Scindia from the western side of India, where he was watching the motions of General Goddard, in the Guzerat. The reduction of Gwallior was therefore resolved on, and the expedition was entrusted to that gallant officer Major W. Popham,* as mentioned in the Brief History prefixed to this Work. The sides of the rock being nearly perpendicular, and about 300 feet from the plain below, with a rampart running round the edge of the precipice, the only way to ascend it was by means of rope and wooden ladders, which were prepared with the greatest secrecy; and so confident were the garrison of their security against surprise, that they regularly retired to sleep between every round of the watch. The party who were appointed to make the first attempt, advanced on the night of the 3d of August, in woollen shoes, and being conducted to the most accessible part of the rock by a few banditti, who had been in the habit of secreting themselves about it, they succeeded in fixing a rope ladder to the battlements, with which they scaled the wall, surprised the garrison, and in the space of two hours gained complete possession of the fortress without the loss of a man killed, and only 20 wounded.

* Now Major General Popham.

No. XVII. THE OLD COURT HOUSE AT CALCUTTA.

THE principal centre object in this View represents the Old Court House at Calcutta. In the foreground, on the right hand of the spectator, is a part of the old fort, celebrated by the defence it made against Surajah Dowlah, and for the subsequent cruelties which he there perpetrated. This fort occupies a part of the side of the square towards the river; it was the first citadel built by the English after their establishment in Bengal. It consists of an indifferent square, with extremely small bastions, which can mount at most but one gun, though the sides are pierced for two. The fort is without a ditch, and is no longer used as a fortification. The ramparts have been converted into gardens, and houses have been built on the bastions, as well as inside of the fort, for the government officers. The fortifications are much reduced from the scale on which they were originally constructed, so that the line of defence is now only 150 yards in length, and the front not more than 200. At the time of the attack made by Surajah, the fort in question was much superior to that which the English had first built at Madras.

The spire of the church rises above the old fort, and nearer to the tiled structure is the scite on which was situated the Black Hole, so pathetically mentioned by Mr. Robert Orme. Over this spot, ever memorable for the flagrant act of barbarity committed at it, there is now erected a monument, consisting of a neat pyramid, truncated at the top, and standing upon a square pedestal, having a sculptured design on each of its faces, and an inscription in the Bengal and English languages, expressive of the occasion on which it was erected. It is surrounded with an iron rail-work, has shrubs planted within it, and impresses the beholder with a melancholy interest.

The wall to the left of the observer is contiguous to the theatre: the latter is a building which does not accord in appearance with the general beauty of the town; and from a want of performers it is not often employed for dramatic representations.

The green carriage is a palankeen, which is preceded by a hircarrah or messenger. This mode of conveyance is very general at Bengal, as well as on the coast of the peninsula; but at Calcutta, exclusively of this method, they employ all sorts of carriages, chariots, whiskies, and phaetons, which occasion as much bustle in the evening as prevails in a principal town of Europe.

More advanced is a cooley, or porter, carrying water, in pots suspended from a long stick across his shoulder.

No. XVIII. THE BRIDGE AT JUONPORE, BENGAL.

THIS Bridge crosses the river Goomty, and was founded by Khan Khannah, Vizier to Sultan Akbar, and Subah of the province of Oude in the year 975 of the Hegira, or A. D. 1567, which is confirmed by a Persian inscription still legible upon the bridge. The sound principles upon which it was built are evident from its having withstood, for such a length of time, the force of the stream, which in the rainy seasons is very considerable. The inundations have frequently been known to rise even above the bridge, insomuch that in the year 1774, a whole brigade of the British forces passed over it in boats.

No. XIX. MOOTEE THURNA,

A Waterfall in the Rajemahl Hills, Bengal.

THIS scene is situated about 200 miles from Calcutta, and is well known to travellers. The Rajemahl Hills form a boundary to the river Ganges. Rajemahl was formerly the capital of one of the kings of Bengal, the ruins of whose palace still remain.

No. XX. MULTURA FORT, ON THE JUMNA.

THIS is an accurate specimen of the ancient Indian fortifications, which in modern times, now the art of war is so much improved, are suffered to go to decay and ruin, so little are they used for defence. At the periods of the irruptions of Alexander and of Timur Beg they were very general, and indeed the principal works of defence in the villages and small towns.

No. XXI. TOMB OF A MOORISH LADY.

THE scenery of this subject is strikingly picturesque and beautiful. The tomb being the principal object in view, it will not admit of much elucidation.

The funereal ceremonies of the Moors are nearly the same as those of the Turks, Persians, and other professors of Islamism; but it is very remarkable that, of the numerous modern travellers who have written on the ceremonies of the Mahomedan nations, very few have touched upon the mode of their burial; and even our best encyclopedias are in this respect very deficient; their accounts being confined to the rites of the Romish, Greek, and Protestant churches.

The following we know to be the process adopted towards deceased Mahomedans in Persia, which will be found to apply, with little variation, to those of India or Africa.

On a person being declared in extreme danger, a priest is called in, who reads some chapters from the Alcoran, and offers up prayers, while the neighbours or passengers are informed by lights upon the sick man's terrace, that the prayers are for a departing soul.

As soon as he has expired, the event is proclaimed by the lamentations of his friends; who not only tear their hair and commit other excesses, but make the most tender addresses to the corpse. The first preparations for interment consist of frequent ablutions, and the operators are rewarded for their trouble with the apparel of the deceased. After the preliminary ceremonies, the mouth, nose, &c. of the corpse are stopped with cotton, and the body is enveloped in a sheet of the same material, on which are written passages of the Alcoran: on being conveyed to the tomb, the face is uncovered and turned towards the city of Mecca.

The relations mourn for forty days, during the first ten of which they daily visit the grave, carrying sweet-meats and other provisions, which they leave for the angels who are supposed to attend and guard the body; and the same practice prevails with them as exists amongst savage nations, of expostulating in a doleful manner with the deceased on his premature departure from the objects of his affection.

The visits are afterwards repeated on certain festivals for a number of years. The mourning is denoted by a total negligence of dress, without any regard to the colour: during the forty days they affect not to shave, and refuse to change their clothes. Widows generally extend the term of mourning, and seldom take a second husband, though their re-union is not prevented by law.

No. XXII. BURIAL PLACE OF A PEER ZADA, ANOPHER, BENGAL.

THIS is the mosque of a man of rank, a Peer Zada, or descendant of the Prophet. The obelisk, which stands detached, is for the purpose of illumination, and the marks upon it are projections on which they place the lamps. The large tree is a tamarind tree, as are those in the distance. Within the walls of the mosque are two figures, the one on the right hand is a Sheick, and the Faquir who has the care of the building. Of the same description, though not of the same sect, is the figure seated on the outside smoking his hubble-bubble. Enclosed in the walls is a large tank or pond of water, for the convenience of the Hindoos, who, as has already been observed, must wash before they can enter the mosque to hear the Alcoran, which is continually read by the officiating Brahmun.

No. XXIII. FELICITY HALL,

The Residence of the Honourable David Anstruther, near Moorsbedabad.

THIS house was built by Mr. Anstruther upon a barren plain, which is now fertilized and cultivated: the edifice gives a correct idea of the style and elegance of the European buildings in India.

No. XXIV. KUTTULL MINER, AT DELHI.

THE ruins exhibited in this view are those of a Mahomedan temple, certainly of remote antiquity. The part of it which is in the best preservation is a minaret, from the top of which the priest daily repeated the creed of his faith, and reminded the people of their devotions. The arched building near its base is the tomb of some Peer Zada (which means a saint), or of some man of distinction. In the fore-ground on the right hand side is the parapet of a tank or pond of water, for the usual purpose of ablution.



TIPPOO SULTAN.

*From an original Picture in the possession of
The Marquis Wellesley.*

PICTURESQUE SCENERY

IN THE

KINGDOM OF MYSORE,

FROM

FORTY DRAWINGS

TAKEN ON THE SPOT

BY JAMES HUNTER,

LIEUTENANT IN THE ROYAL ARTILLERY; SERVING IN A DETACHMENT FROM
THAT CORPS UNDER

MARQUIS CORNWALLIS,

IN THE WAR WITH TIPPOO SULTAN.

ENGRAVED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF EDWARD ORME, AND PUBLISHED BY HIM
IN BOND-STREET, LONDON.

PRINTED BY W. BULMER AND CO. CLEVELAND-ROW, ST. JAMES'S.

1805.

TO

HER ROYAL HIGHNESS

THE

PRINCESS ELIZABETH,

A PATRONESS AND ADMIRER,

AS WELL AS

ONE OF THE MOST DISTINGUISHED ORNAMENTS OF THE FINE ARTS,

THIS WORK,

OF

VIEWS IN THE KINGDOM OF MYSORE,

IS WITH

THE GREATEST RESPECT MOST HUMBLY DEDICATED,

BY

HER ROYAL HIGHNESS'S

MUCH OBLIGED, MOST RESPECTFUL, AND

OBEDIENT SERVANT,

EDWARD ORME.

I N D E X.

1. *Portrait of Tippoo Sultan.*
2. *A View of Seringapatam.*
3. *A View of Hyder Ally's Tomb at Ditto.*
4. *A View of a Mosque at Ditto.*
5. *A View of the Music Gallery at the Entrance of the Mosque, at Ditto.*
6. *A View of the Garden Gate, Laul Baugh, at Ditto.*
7. *A View of Hyder Ally Khan's own Family Tomb at Color.*
8. *East View of Bangalore, with the Cypress Garden, from a Pagoda.*
9. *North Front of Tippoo's Palace, at Bangalore.*
10. *West Front of Tippoo's Palace, at Ditto.*
11. *A Street leading to the Palace, at Ditto.*
12. *The Square, and Entrance into the Palace, at Ditto.*
13. *North Entrance of Ditto, at Ditto.*
14. *The Mysore Gate, at Ditto.*
15. *The North Entrance into the Fort of Ditto.*
16. *The Delhi Gate of Ditto.*
17. *The South Entrance into the Fort of Ditto.*
18. *The Third Delhi Gate, at Ditto.*
19. *A Moorish Mosque, at Ditto.*
20. *A View of Mount St. Thomas, near Madras.*
21. *The Royal Artillery Encampment, at Arcot.*
22. *A Pagoda, at Strupermador.*
23. *A Mosque, at Ditto.*
24. *A View on the Road, at Ditto.*
25. *Overflowing of the Tank, at Ditto.*
26. *A View of Ouscottah, from an Edgah.*
27. *A View of Killader's Tomb, Ouscottah.*
28. *A View of the Hill Fort Kistnaghurry.*
29. *A View of Ditto from the East.*
30. *North-west Angle of Osar.*
31. *South-east Angle of Osar.*
32. *North View of Shole Ghurry.*
33. *East View of Shole Ghurry, from the Camp at Arnee.*
34. *Orry Durgam, the Head of the Pass into the Barrah Mauhl.*
35. *A View in the Barrah Mauhl.*
36. *A View from the Royal Artillery Encampment, at Conjeveram.*
37. *A View from the Royal Artillery Encampment, at Conditore.*
38. *A View of Ootra Droog.*
39. *Nabob's Choultry and Tank, at Conjeveram.*
40. *A House at Bankepore, the Residence of William Hunter, Esq.*
41. *Commillah, late the Residence of John Buller, Esq.*



SERINGAPATAM.
Sold & Published Jan 1, 1803, by Edwd Orme, His Majesty's Printer, No. 86, New Bond Street, London.



HYDER ALLY'S TOMB, SRI SRINAGAPATNA

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A MOSQUE AT SERINGAPATAM.

Sold & Published for the Author by John Green, Esq., M.A., Printer to His Majesty's Stationery Office, No. New Bond Street, London.



GARDEN GATE, LAUL BAUGH, SERINGAPATAM.

Sold & Published, Jan's 1st week, by Edw^d Orme, His Majesty's Printer, 29 New Bond Street, London.



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EAST VIEW OF BANGALORE, WITH THE CYPRESS GARDEN, FROM A PAGODA.



NORTH FRONT OF TIPPOO'S PALACE, BANGALORE.

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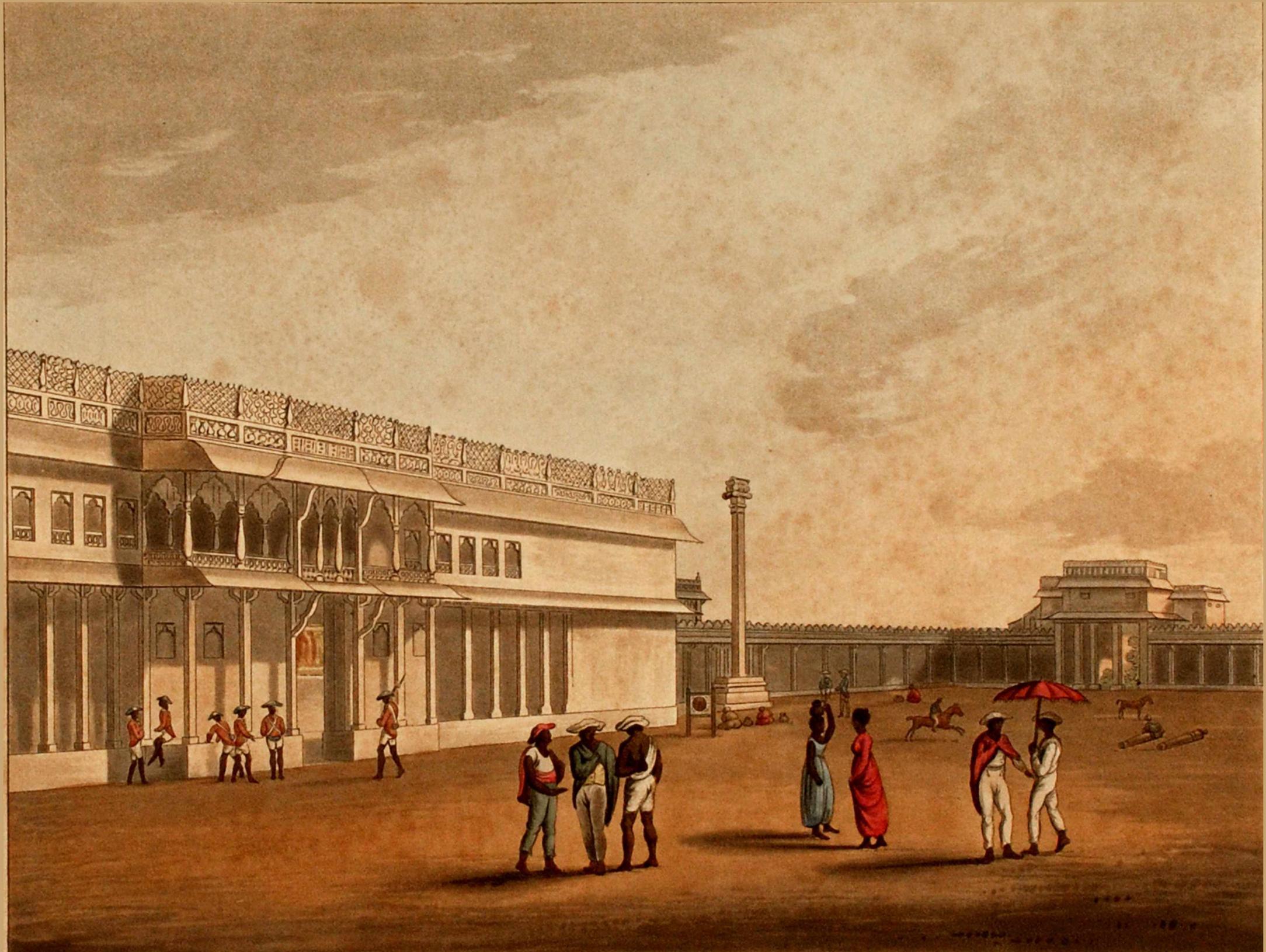


WEST FRONT OF TIPU'S PALACE, BANGALORE.

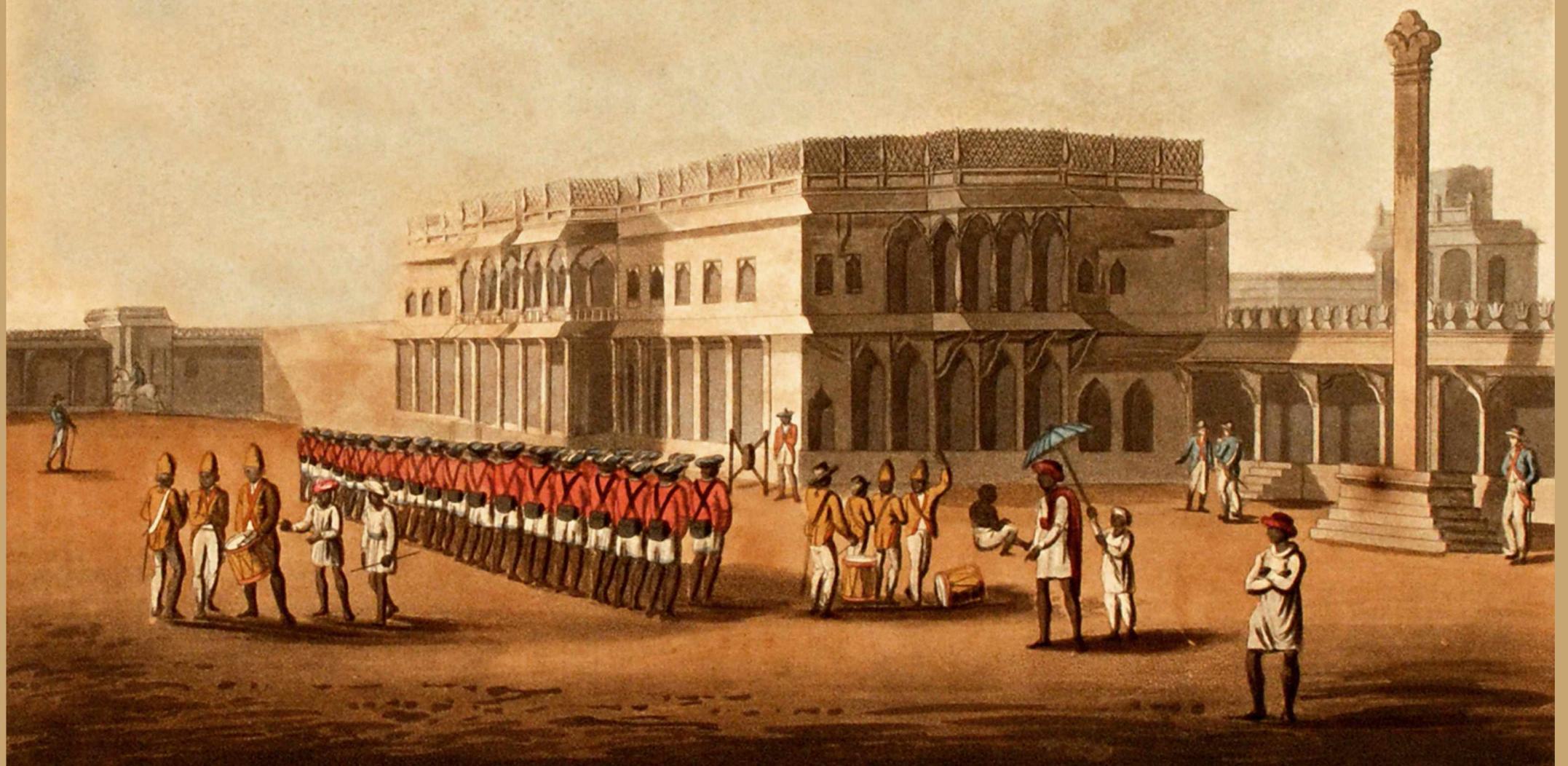
Sold & Published Jan' 1, 1804, by Edw^d Orme, His Majesty's Printer to the Queen, 50 New Bond Street, London.



A STREET LEADING TO THE PALACE OF BANGALORE.



THE SQUARE AND ENTRANCE INTO TIPPOO'S PALACE, BANGALORE.



NORTH ENTRANCE OF TIPPOO'S PALACE AT BANGALORE.

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Sold & Published Jan^r 1. 1804 by Edw^r Orme, His Majesty's Print-seller, 59 New Bond Street, London.



THE DELHI GATE OF BANGALORE.



THE SOUTH ENTRANCE INTO THE FORT OF BANGALORE.



MUSI GALLERY AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE MOSQUE, SERINGAPATAM.

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THE THIRD DELHI GATE OF JAIPUR

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A VIEW OF MOUNT ST THOMAS, NEAR MADRAS.

Sold & Published, June 4 1804 by Edw Orme His Majesty's Printeller, at New Bond Street London.



THE ROYAL ARTILLERY ENCAMPMENT, ARCOT,

Published March 1802, by Robert Scott, the Royal Printers, 26 New Bond Street, London.



A PAGODA AT STRUPERMADOR.

Sold & Published June 4, 1804 by Edw^t Orme His Majesty's Printer, 29 New Bond Street, London.



A MOSQUE AT STRUPERMADOR.

Sold & Published June 4 1804, by Edw^d Orme His Majesty's Printer, 28 New Bond Street London



A VIEW ON THE ROAD AT STRUPERMADOR

Sold & Published June 4 1801 by Edw^d Orme His Majesty's Printereller 50 New Bond Street London



OVERFLOWING OF THE TANK, AT STRUPERMADOR.

Sold & Published June 1, 1802, by Edw^d Orme His Majesty's Printeller, 39 New Bond Street, London.



A VIEW OF OUSCOTTAH, FROM AN EADGAH.

Sold & Published June 4 1804 by Edm^o Orme His Majesty's Printer, 20 New Bond Street, London.



KILLADER'S TOMB, OUSCOTTAH.

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KISTNAGHURRY.

Sold & Published June 1 1802 by Edm^t Orme His Majesty's Printer 52 New Bond Street London



EAST VIEW OF KISTNAGHURRY.

Sold & Published June 4 1804, by E^t Orme His Majesty's Printeller, 20 New Bond Street, London.



N. W. ANGLE OF OSAR.

Sold & Published June 4 1804 by Edw^r Orme His Majesty's Print-seller 59 New Bond Street London.



SOUTH EAST ANGLE OF OSAR.

Sold & Published Aug^t 1 1804, by Edw^r Orme, His Majesty's Print-seller, 59, New Bond Street, London.



NORTH VIEW OF SHOLE GHURRY.

Published & Sold Jan^r 1 1805 by Edw^r Orme His Majesty's Printseller 49 New Bond Street London



EAST VIEW OF SHOLE GHURRY, FROM THE CAMP AT ARNEE.

Sold & Published June 4, 1804, by Edw' Orme His Majesty's Printer & Sold, No. Bend Street, London.



OURRY DURGAM. THE HEAD OF THE PASS INTO THE BARRAH MAUHL.

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A VIEW IN THE BARRAH MAUHL.

Sold & Published June 4, 1802, by Edu^d Orme, His Majesty's Printer, 29 New Bond Street, London



A VIEW FROM THE ROYAL ARTILLERY ENCAMPMENT, CONJEVERAM.

Published & Sold, Jan' 1 1805, by Edw^d Crimell His Majesty's Printer, 59 New Bond Street, London.



A VIEW FROM THE ROYAL ARTILLERY ENCAMPMENT CONDIORE.



A VIEW OF OOTRA DROOG.

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NABOBS CHOURTRY & TANK, AT CONJEVERAM.



A HOUSE AT BANKIPORE, THE RESIDENCE OF W^M HUNTER ESQ^R

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COMMILLAH. LATE THE RESIDENCE OF JOHN BULLER ESQ^R.

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